GAZETTEER

OF THE

AMBALA DISTRICT,

 1892–93.

Price, Rs. 2-6-0.

Compiled and Published under the authority of the

PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

LAHORE

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PREFACE.

The first edition of the Ambála *Gazetteer*, published in 1885, was prepared mainly from a draft *Gazetteer* compiled between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law, which again was largely based upon the Settlement Reports of the district by Messrs. Wynyard and Melvill, written about 1855.

A revised settlement of the district was begun in 1882 and 1883 and finished in 1889. The Assessment and Final Reports of the Settlement Officers, Messrs. Kensington and Douie, have supplied the chief material from which a revised edition of the *Gazetteer* has been prepared. The statistical Tables have been brought up to date, and wherever possible the Census figures of 1891 have been incorporated.

Where fuller information is required on the subjects noticed in Chapter III, Section B (Social and Religious Life), Section C (Tribes and Castes), and Chapter IV, Section A (Agriculture), it will be found in the Punjab Census Reports of 1881 and 1891, and in the Ludhiána or Karnál volumes of the *Gazetteer* series.

March 1893. THE EDITOR.

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		Detail of Tahsils.					
Details.	District.	Ambála.	Kharar.	Rúpar.	Naráingarh.	Jagádhri.	Pípli.
Total square miles (1892)	2,412	355	369	288	435	406	559
Cultivated square miles (1892)	1,516	278	237	191	217	266	327
Culturable square miles (1892)	304	34	26	19	22	44	159
Irrigated square miles (1892)	80	2	17	24	5	12	20
Average square miles under crops (1889 to 1892)	1,434	249	231	203	199	256	296
Annual rainfall in inches (1872-73 to 1891-92)	32·9	32·7	30·1	28·5	37·7	40·2	28·3
Number of inhabited towns and villages (1891)	2,115	288	370	357	311	373	416
Total population (1891)	1,033,427	230,567	168,642	146,816	141,326	168,634	177,442
Rural population (1891)	893,562	151,273	168,642	138,123	130,881	148,796	155,847
Urban population (1891)	139,685	79,294	...	8,693	10,445	19,838	21,595
Total population per square mile (1891)	428	649	457	509	325	415	317
Rural population per square mile (1891)	371	426	457	480	301	366	279
Hindús (1891)	630,857	135,643	102,567	65,651	97,984	114,944	114,068
Sikhs (1891)	93,679	13,559	31,982	33,858	3,639	4,612	6,029
Jains (1891)	2,823	1,341	270	227	450	493	42
Mussalmáns (1891)	300,856	75,089	38,664	47,029	39,252	48,560	57,262
Average annual land revenue* (1889 to 1892) Rs.	8,70,651	1,54,534	1,47,442	1,55,316	1,14,018	1,34,770	1,64,571
Ditto gross revenue† (1889 to 1892) "	13,06,456	...	...	...	...	...	...

* Fixed, fluctuating and miscellaneous (excluding assigned land revenue.)

† Land, tribute, local rates, excise and stamps.

Note.—The average figures for area under crops and for land revenue and gross revenue are calculated for the three years 1889-90 to 1891-92 only, as the district was reduced in 1888-89 by the transfer of 89 villages from the Pípli tahsíl to the Karnál district.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

SECTION A.—DESCRIPTIVE.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

The Ambála district is the northern-most of the six districts in the plains, which with the small district of Simla in the hills make up the Delhi division. It lies between north latitude 29°49′ and 30°46′ and east longitude 76°26′ and 77°39′. It was up to 1886 the head quarters of a separate division containing the Ludhiána, Ambála and Simla districts. In 1886 the Ambála division was abolished; and the district was then incorporated with the Delhi division. It comprises two detached blocks of country lying between the Jamna and the Sutlej, and it is divided into six tahsíls, of which four (Ambála, Naráingarh, Jagádhri and Pípli) are included in the larger block covering the southern and eastern portions of the district, while the remaining two (Kharar and Rúpar) cover a very much smaller tract running up to the Sutlej in the extreme north-west. Roughly these two blocks are divided by the Ghaggar stream, and by a large tract of Native State territory. The boundary on the east is the Jamna, separating the Jagádhri and Pípli tahsíls from the Saháranpur district of the North-Western Provinces. On the south the Pípli tahsil adjoins the Karnál and Kaithal tahsíls of Karnál. On the west the border is throughout Native State territory, principally belonging to Patiála, except in the extreme north-west, where the district just touches Ludhiána. From that point running still further north the Sutlej divides the Rúpar tahsíl along a frontage of 26 miles from the Garhshankar and Una tahsíls of Hoshiárpur, and the remaining north-eastern border line of 80 miles from the Sutlej to the Jamna is again all Native State territory owned by Nalagarh, Patiála, Kalsia and Nahan. In addition there are small scattered blocks of Patiála or Kalsia villages within the limits of the Ambála and Jagádhri tahsíls, while in many places Native territory cuts in between sections of the district in a very inconvenient way. For a Punjab district it is unwieldy in size and not well arranged for administrative purposes, having taken its present form more from the force of circumstances than from any attempt to construct a district suitable in itself. Its greatest length from north-west to south-east is 92 miles, and its breadth at the widest part 67 miles, and being intersected or bounded by Native States in all directions it can never be an easily administered charge.

As originally constituted in 1847 Ambála contained five tahsíls. The sixth (Pípli) was added in 1862 on the breaking up of the old Thanesar district. A further change was made

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in 1888 when 89 villages covering 214 square miles with a population of 34,519 were transferred from the Pípli tahsíl to the Kaithal tahsíl of the Karnál district. The *tahsíls* are further subdivided into *parganahs* as follows :—Ambála, into Ambála and Mulána ; Jagádhri, into Jagádhri, Mustafábád, and Khizrábád ; Rúpar, into Rúpar and Morinda ; Kharar, into Kharar and Mubárikpur ; Naráingarh, into Naráingarh, Sadhaura, and Kotáha ; and Pípli, into Thanesar, Shahábad, and Ládwa.

Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several *tahsíls* into which it is divided are given in Table No. I facing the first page. The district contains five towns of more than 10,000 souls, as follows :—Ambála city, 28,278 including 1,422 residents in the Civil Lines ; Ambála Cantonment, 51,016 ; Jagádhri, 13,029 ; Shahábad, 11,473 ; Sádhaura, 10,445. The administrative head-quarters are situated at Ambála on the North-Western and Delhi-Kálka Railways, and at about the centre of the district as regards accessibility though on the extreme west of the main southern block of the district. Ambála stands 18th in order of area and 3rd in order of population among the 31 districts of the Province, comprising 2·60 per cent. of the total area, 4·95 per cent. of the total population, and 5·79 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown in the margin.

Town.	N. Latitude.	E. Longitude.	Feet above sea-level.
Ambála	30°21′	76°52′	902
Kharar	30°45′	76°41′	920*
Jagádhri	30°10′	77°21′	924
Naráingarh	30°29′	77°10′	1,000*
Rúpar	30°58′	76°34′	900*
Thanesar	29°59′	76°52′	800*
Shahábad	30°10′	76°55′	850*

*Approximate.

Physical features.

The district is usually described as submontane, and the description is correct enough as regards the Rúpar, Kharar, Naráingarh and Jagádhri tahsíls, which are all bounded by the Siwálik range and in parts include a considerable area of hilly country. The soil in these tahsíls is generally speaking good alluvial loam, similar in character to, though not nearly so rich as, the soil in the corresponding tahsíls of the Hoshiárpur district across the Sutlej on the north, while as in Hoshiárpur much damage is done to these richer tracts by the sand torrents which pour down from the hills at intervals of a few miles throughout the 80 miles course of the Siwálik range from the Sutlej to the Jamna. The southern portion of the district, however, including the greater part of the Pípli tahsíl, a large part of Ambála, and some scattered blocks of villages in Naráingarh and Jagádhri, is much poorer in quality. Stiff clay soil is there the rule, and in Pípli especially the face of the country is broken with huge tracts of *dhak* jungle. The hilly tracts are generally devoid of vegetation other than rough scrub, and the low bleak hills are little used except as grazing grounds for the Gujar population by whom they are occupied. There are however two more valuable tracts of mountainous and forest country at Kale-

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Physical features.

sar and Morni. The Kalesar area of 19 square miles in the eastern corner of the Jagádhri tahsíl is separately demarcated as Government land under the Forest Department, growing *sál* timber well, and a fuller description of this small forest is given in Chapter IV. The Morni iláka of the Kotaha pargana in the Naráingarh tahsíl covers 93 square miles, in which forest rights were granted to the jágírdár, known as the Mír of Kotaha, by a sanad issued from the Governor-General in 1816 on the conclusion of the Gurkha war. This Morni tract includes about 25 square miles of low hills closely resembling the Siwálik range in their general features, and forming the connecting link between the Himalayas and the plains. The remaining area is made up of two main ridges of much higher hills running throughout the tract from north-west to south-east, with numerous spurs branching out in all directions. These higher hills are known as the Morni and Tipra ranges, and in conformation and character they are much more similar to the outer ranges of the true Himalayas. The highest point in the tract is the Karoh peak of 4,919 feet on the Nahan border, and the whole iláka differs completely from the rest of the district both in its physical features, its history and the races of its inhabitants.

Nature of soil, scenery, &c.

Immediately below the hills there is a strip of undulating or broken ground varying greatly in extent in different tahsíls, and the rest of the district is an almost level plain sloping very slightly to the south-west, broken at short intervals by the beds of the mountain torrents, which form the most characteristic feature in the physical aspect of the country. It is to the rich alluvial silt brought down by these streams that the district owes much of its fertility, and broadly speaking there is no well recognised distinction of the plains portions otherwise than in accordance with the greater or less proportion of good alluvial soil and hard unworkable clay land. In the richer parts covering the north and centre of the district the aspect of the country is pleasing. For a highly cultivated district it is well-wooded, with fine mango groves in all the large villages, while in clear weather the Himalayan background makes a refreshing break in the monotony of the scene. Towards the south however, there is a wild, desolate looking tract of much poorer country, comparatively thinly populated and with great stretches of jungle which form a perfect paradise for cattle thieves. The depth to water below the surface of the soil is very great, often 100 feet or more, just below the hills. Elsewhere it varies generally from 6 to 20 feet in the parts of the district in which irrigation is little needed, and from 30 to 60 feet in the few small tracts where wells are really required. As a whole the district is essentially dependent on rain for its crops, and the total area irrigated from all sources is comparatively insignificant. In Pípli 13 per cent. of the cultivated area is classed as irrigated, in Jagádhri 6 per cent., in Ambála barely 1½, in Kharar about 7, in Rúpar 10 and in Naráingarh about 2½. Good wells are common and highly profitable in many parts of Pípli,

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Nature of soil, scenery, &c.

in the western Dhaia tract of the Rúpar tahsíl and in a small corresponding tract in Kharar known as the Charsa circle. Elsewhere the well irrigation such as it is, is mostly from very small masonry or temporary *kacha* wells and is used for the small plots of garden cultivation in the hands of Malís or Sainís, usually occupancy tenants. The remaining irrigation includes a little from the Western Jamna Canal in Jagádhri and Pípli, some occasional irrigation from *kacha* tanks, about 8,000 acres irrigated by *kuls* or ducts from the Ghaggar in the Neli circle of the Kharar tahsil, with about 1,500 acres similarly irrigated by *kuls* in the plains portion and 700 acres in the Morni hill portion of the Naráingarh tahsil. The crops obtained from the irrigated lands are very valuable, especially the opium and tobacco crops raised by the Málís and Sainís on homestead lands, but the high cultivation required for these crops makes it impossible to largely extend the area on which they can be grown, and in general the country is not adapted for irrigating wells owing to the uncertainty of the subsoil water-supply. The *kul* irrigation of Kharar and Naráingarh is valuable, especially for rice and sugarcane crops, but the effect of the irrigation is almost always to make the villages of the tract very unhealthy. This is more particularly the case where the water-supply is taken from the Ghaggar whether in the plains as in Kharar or in the hills as in Naráingarh.

Hill streams.

The general character of the hill streams, which have already been alluded to as a prominent feature of the district, is that of broad sandy courses, scarcely below the surface of the country, and varying in breadth from a hundred yards to upwards of a mile, dry during the great part of the year, but pouring down a formidable body of water in rainy weather. This character they maintain for a distance, on the average, of 30 miles below the hills. They then gradually tame down into sluggish docile streams, with well-defined clay banks, and a volume which is much diminished by absorption in the sand. Eventually all, or almost all, the streams that leave the hills between the Sutlej and the Jamna unite in the Ghaggar. This from the commencement is the most important of them all, and is the only one which contains a flow of water throughout the year. Passing the confines of the district, it flows on through Patiála and Sirsa, and finally loses itself in the sands of Rájputána. The other streams are generally dry for the greater part of the year, and are difficult to cross only for a short time after heavy rain in the hills. Many of them may however then for a time turn into formidable torrents causing some loss of life and much loss of property. The tendency of all these streams is to gradually silt up the centre of the bed causing the flood water to spill on one side or the other till the stream widens its course by cutting away the banks, or cuts for itself an entirely new channel through rich alluvial land. The construction of the railway embankment across the drainage line of the country has much increased the risk of serious floods in the rainy season,

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and in some years the damage done is very considerable. In 1885 and 1886 a systematic survey was made of the principal streams passing through the Jagádhri, Pípli and Ambála tahsíls with the object of developing a scheme for more efficient control of the flood waters so as to diminish the injury done by floods and make the water-supply more easily available for irrigation. The investigation showed conclusively that no such general scheme was practicable, and no definite results followed. In the last two years however much good has been done by getting the villagers to plant out the sandy wastes along the present or former beds of the streams with trees and grass, with the double object of reclaiming waste land and protecting cultivated areas from erosion. Sarkána grass (Saccharum sara or ciriale) and káhi (Saccharum spontaneum) are invaluable for this purpose, and the Deputy Commissioner writes that many thousands of acres have been already reclaimed in this way. The grasses are valuable in themselves for thatching, rope making and other numerous village purposes, but their principal use is that they bind the soil and prevent the extension of damage by sand, while they require little to encourage their growth beyond combined efforts on the part of the villagers and simple measures for protection of the plantations from the inroads of cattle. Omitting minor streams, the most important of the hill torrents are the Sirsa, Budki and Sugh in Rúpar; the Siswán, Jainta Devi, Patiála naddi, Sukhna and Ghaggar in Kharar; the Tangri, Run, Begna and Markanda in Rúpar, Ambála and Pípli; and the Chantang, Sarusti, Som and Rakshi in the east and south of the district. Some account is given below of a few principal streams to show how much importance (for both good and evil) the natural drainage system of the country has in Ambála.

The Ghaggar.

The Ghaggar rises in the territory of Náhan and, passing through the Kotáha *perganah*, leaves the hills a few miles above the town of Máni Májra. It skirts the border of the Kharar *tahsil* for a few miles, and then crosses the district at its narrowest point. Thence it passes on into Patiála territory, but again touches the border of the district a short distance to the west of the city of Ambála. Near Máni Májra it is largely used for irrigation, the water being drawn off by means of artificial cuts or *kuls*. The bed is covered with large boulders for a few miles below the hills, but soon becomes a wide tract of sand. The upper portion of the course contains water throughout the year, a foot deep in summer, but reaching six feet or more in the rains, and when in flood, the current is very dangerous to cross. The Ambála and Simla road crosses it by a ford about half-way between Kálka and Ambála, and the mails were, during the rains, carried over on elephants, till a fine railway bridge was constructed for the Delhí-Kálka Railway. Near Ambála again large bridges have been constructed for the Grand Trunk Road and the North-Western Railway, and shortly below these the stream branches off into Patiála territory on the west.

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The Márkanda.

The Márkanda, rising in the Siwáliks near Náhan, is the second largest stream in the district. In the first twenty miles of its course in the plains it is joined by two other torrents. The first which rises in the hills to the north of Sadhaura, bears the significant name of "Sadadeni" or "the constant plague." The second, which unites with the Márkanda lower down, is called the Begna. The Márkanda enters the Pípli tahsíl near Shahábad, and, where the Grand Trunk Road crosses it, is spanned by a fine masonry bridge of 27 arches built since last settlement. The bridge is 1,400 feet long, and the estimated cost of it was above 3½ lakhs.

Before its construction, carts were often kept two days on the banks waiting for the waters to subside. The present course of the stream owing probably to the raising of the levels of the country by deposits of silt during a long series of years is higher than the land to the east of it, and if unchecked, the Márkanda would probably find for itself a new channel further east. At last settlement it threatened to desert its old bed, and to pour its floods down the Betan, and protective works had to be made for three miles above the bridge to keep the river in its old course. From Shahábad it flows south-west through a rich *bet* formed by the deposits of silt which its floods leave behind them. At Kalsana an important channel running west to the Umla at Thal has been formed, and much spill water now finds its way down the bed. A little above Jhansa the Márkanda divides into two channels. The western one has been the real bed of the river since the construction of the Shahábad embankment. But the river is now steadily setting to the east, and is excavating a new bed which carries much silt to the large Rájpút estate of Lukhi, in the neighbourhood of which it is gradually changing clay land of the worst type into rich alluvial soil. In the rainy season floods come down the Márkanda with extraordinary suddenness and violence, and men and cattle are sometimes caught and carried away when crossing the bed. The waters pour down numerous minor channels and spread over the face of the country far and wide, leaving, where the flow is slow, silt, and, where it is swift, sand. The floods subside very rapidly. It must not be supposed that they are uniformly beneficial. Cases are not unknown in which the people of a village have lost in a single night all their stores of grain and been left without roofs to cover them. A late autumn flood at times carries away or rots great quantities of maize which has been cut, but not garnered. The fortunes of villages, especially of those along the lower part of the river, are very fluctuating. Much sand is often deposited and the strong west winds of March blow it over the land which has escaped. But the good done by the Márkanda in its lower courses far outweighs the losses it occasions.

The Tangri is a large and very destructive stream rising in the Morni hills. It runs close to Ambála Cantonment, and has at different times caused much trouble from its tendency to

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The Tangri.

work out new channels, necessitating expensive protection works at Khera Ghanni in Naráingarh and again a few miles north of Cantonments. A large branch used to flow between the city and Cantonments, but the drainage is now confined to the eastern channel, and the water-supply for Cantonments is derived from a series of wells constructed on its banks. Below Ambála it is crossed by a large railway bridge, and then joins a fresh channel known as the Umla, which is often a cause of disastrous flood after passing beyond the limits of the Ambála district.

The Sarusti.

The Sarusti, the ancient Saraswati, is famous in the annals of early Brahminical history, as the most sacred river in India after the Ganges. It does not rise in the hills, but begins in a large depression in the north of the Mustafábad pargana of Jagádhri. For the first 20 miles of its course it is utterly insignificant, its channel being frequently only marked by a shallow depression on the surface of the ground, and being often lost entirely. Like the Brahmans who trade on its sanctity, it lives on the contributions of its neighbours. It is only after the Chautang joins it at Bhaini that it acquires a continuous channel and is worthy of being called a stream. Above Bhaini its course is south-west, but below this point it takes a much more westerly direction, and crosses the Grand Trunk Road a few miles to the north of Pípli. It flows past Thanesar and floods the rice lands in the neighbourhood of that holy, but very decayed, town. The Choya, the Betan, and the Linda, which are probably old channels of the Márkanda, join, and the united stream, known as the Linda, falls into the Sarusti near the border of the Pehowa pargana. A few miles lower down at Urnái the Márkanda pours its waters into the Sarusti. Its channel cannot contain the heavy Márkanda floods, and in the rains the country to the east of Pehowa is converted into a great lake. At Pehowa the channel again becomes well defined and it enters the Kaithal tahsíl a few miles further to the west. Crossing Karnál, the united river, bearing still the name of Sarusti, enters Patiála territory and ultimately joins the Ghaggar. In ancient times the Ghaggar, below this junction, appears to have borne the name of its tributary, the Sarusti, and, undiminished in those days by irrigation near the hills, poured down a considerable volume of water across the Rájputána plains, and debouched into the Indus below the junction of the Punjab rivers. Its bed can be still traced as far as Mírgarh in Baháwalpur, but its water penetrates no further than Bhatner in Rájpútána.

Much has been written as to the desiccation of the Sarusti, which is thus represented in ancient times to have been an important river. The phenomenon, however, seems amply explained by the supposition made above, that anciently the Ghaggar was considered an affluent of the Sarusti, instead of the Sarusti of the Ghaggar, and that when ancient writers speak of the Sarusti, they include under that name the united

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Ghaggar and Sarusti. If the possibility of this be granted, the failure in the water supply is easily accounted for by the greater volume of water now drawn off for irrigation, and by the silting up of the river beds caused by the dams employed to divert the water over the fields. It is impossible to suppose that the supply of water in the sources has permanently decreased. This varies from year to year with the rainfall, and there is no reason for supposing that the rainfall is less now than it used to be. There is no mystery about the matter. The Ghaggar, it must be remembered, would, if it and its tributaries were left to themselves, receive the whole drainage of the lower Himalayas between the Jamna and the Sutlej, and this is quite sufficient to provide water during the rains for a considerable river. At the present time, in parts of the courses of the various streams, every village has dams, which, however small individually, carry off in the aggregate an enormous volume of water, quite sufficient to affect the lower parts of the stream. Nor is this the only result of the system of damming back the water for purposes of irrigation. Not only is water drawn off, but the flow of the water which escapes is impeded. This leads to increased absorption in the soil, and increased deposit of silt. And thus, year by year, the power of the streams to sweep away obstacles becomes less, while the obstacles themselves become less formidable. In the Ambála district the bed of the Sarusti is for the most part well defined, but expands, here and there, into a broad belt of sand. It never contains more than two feet of water, and is dry for eight months in the year, water remaining only in occasional parts or in spots where it is dammed up to provide bathing places for pilgrims. General Cunningham, in his Archæological Report for 1863-64, gives the following account of the river :—

"The Sarasuti, in Sanskrit *Saraswati*, is too well known to require more than a mere notice. Its name is derived from *Saras*, a 'lake or pool,' and *rati*, 'like,' meaning the 'river of lakes or pools,' a character which it still bears, as it partially dries up early in the year, and becomes a mere succession of pools without any visible stream. The Brahmans have cleverly taken advantage of these pools, to each of which they have attached a legend with its accompanying shrine. Thus, along the bank of the Sarásuti to the north of Thanesar, from *Ratan Jaksh* on the east to *Aujas Ghât* on the west, a distance of only five miles, there are no less than 34 shrines, or seven shrines in one mile, or a shrine at every 250 yards. Of these the most celebrated is the *Kula Práchín*, or *Gangatirath*, in which the Ganges herself is said to have bathed to get rid of the load of sin with which the people had defiled her waters. Another famous place is the *Sthánutirath*, where *Vena Rája* dedicated a shrine to Siva, under the name of *Sthánu*. According to the legend, the leprous *Rája Ben*, whose name I have found as widely diffused as those of the Pándus themselves, while travelling in a *doli* was set down by the bearers on the bank of the Saraswati. A dog crossed the river and stopped near the *doli* to shake himself, when some water was sprinkled on the Rája, who was astonished on seeing that each spot thus wetted immediately became whole. He at once plunged into the stream and came out entirely cleansed from his leprosy. These two legends are alone sufficient to account for the deeply-rooted belief of the people in the the purifying quality of the waters of the Saraswati. Some places refer to the destruction of the Kshatriyas by Parasu-Ráma, and other spots are dedicated to the story of the Pándus, such as *Kshirihi—vása* and *Asthipur*. In the first of these places the water of the river was changed to milk (*kshira*) for the use of the wearied *Pándus*, and in the other their bones (*asthi*) were collected together in a heap. In A.D. 634 these bones were shown to the Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, who records

that they were of very large size. All my enquiries for them were fruitless, but the site of *Asthípur* is still pointed out in the plain to the west of the city towards Aujas Ghat."

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The Sarusti.

The Hindu tradition attached to the disappearance of the river in the sand is as follows:— Sarassuti was the daughter of Maháddeo; but her father one day, in a fit of drunkenness, approaching with intent to violate her modesty, she fled, and in her flight, whenever she saw her pursuer gaining, she dived under ground, re-emerging a few miles further on. The river sprang up in her track, and where she disappeared in order to commemorate her exploit there the river also to this day dives under ground.

The Sutlej.

The two great rivers of the district, the Sutlej on the north and the Jamna on the east are utilized for the Sirhind and Western Jamna Canal systems, the head works of the former being at Rúpar and of the latter at Tajawála in the Jagádhri tahsíl. The Sutlej is the border of the district for 26 miles, starting from Kiráthpur, where it leaves the Una valley of the Hoshiárpur District. From Kiráthpur to Rúpar, some 14 miles, it is a broad strong stream from 8 to 10 feet deep in the winter. At Rúpar the water is to a great extent diverted during the cold season into the Sirhind Canal channel, and below Rúpar the stream is now quite insignificant for some six months in the year. With the melting of the snows in the hills the water rises in May and June, and during the rains the river is again formidable. Its action is capricious, the deep stream running sometimes on the east, sometimes on the west of a huge, dreary waste of sand and river jungle land. At Rúpar there is a small timber depôt for the storing of deodar logs floated down from the hills, but the greater part of the timber passes on to the Phillour depôt lower down.

The Sirhind Canal.

The Sirhind Canal system commands an area of over 8,000 square miles in British and Native territory. There is practically no irrigation from the Canal in the Ambála district, but the large works involved in the construction of so much of the Canal as runs through the Rúpar tahsíl require some notice. The head works are about a mile from Rúpar, and consist of a weir 2,400 feet longwith a crest 6 feet above the normal bed of the river and an arrangement of movable shutters which when erect command the whole mass of water in the river. Over the last 330 feet of the weir on the Rúpar side a large masonry bridge has been constructed with under-sluices consisting of 12 openings, each 20 feet in width, fitted with double gates each 5 feet in height. The draw caused by these openings ensures the deep channel being in front of the canal regulator, and the regulation of the supply in the canal is assisted by raising or lowering these sluice gates. Adjoining and at right angles to the under-sluices is the regulating bridge. Its function is by the opening or closing of its gates so to regulate the amount of water that the quantity actually required and no more shall at any moment be passed into the canal. A lock channel is placed 550 feet up-stream of the regulator, forming

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the navigation entrance from the river. After leaving the river the next work of importance is the Budki super-passage, which carries the combined streams of the Sugh and Budki torrents across the canal. The aggregate catchment area of these two torrents is 86 square miles, and their combined discharge, when in flood, 30,000 cubic feet a second. The super-passage is 400 feet wide between the parapets, which are 12 feet high. The water in flood is about 9 feet deep on the floor of the aqueduct, the cost of which was Rs. 12½ lakhs. A long diversion cut leads the Sugh into the Budki above the super-passage, and a short cut on the down-stream side conducts the floods to the river.

In the 7th mile another super-passage carries the Siswán torrent over the canal. It is a similar but smaller work than that above described; its cost (with training works), was nine lakhs. It is designed to pass 20,000 cubic feet per second, and is 250 feet wide between parapets, which are 10 feet high. Unusual difficulties were met with in laying the foundations of this work, and its construction was laborious and expensive. In the 11th mile a large syphon passes a drainage under the canal, and in the 12th mile there is a regulating bridge and escape head. Any water in the canal which is in excess of requirements can here be returned to the Sutlej. Shortly after passing the 13th mile stone, the last of the cross drainages is met with, and the waters of a comparatively small nallah are passed under the canal by a syphon. The remaining drainages from the high land are ponded by the canal spoil, and arrangements have been made by which surplus water from these reservoirs can be passed into the canal. From this point cnwards, the works presented no particular difficulties in construction, as the bed of the canal is above the spring level.

The works on the main line are constructed of sandstone obtained from a quarry near Nalágarh, and the mortar was manufactured of bricks from the ruins of Sirhind and lime from *kunkur* quarries at Patarheri a village a few miles from Rúpar. A railway line 54 miles long was constructed from Dauráha to the Nalágarh quarries to carry material, but the line was taken up shortly after completion of the canal in 1884-85.

For the repairs of the engines and machinery in use on the canal, a workshop and foundry was erected near the regulator at Rúpar. The whole of the lock and regulator gates, with their fittings and gear, have been built in these shops, and work has also been done for other canals in the Punjab.

At Rúpar, too, the experiment of employing convict labor on public works was made on a large scale. At intervals of one mile, three jails were built capable of holding in all 2,500 men. The prisoners rarely reached this number, but there were usually from 1,400 to 1,800 on the works. Their services were of great value, as their presence ensured the placing of a large body of men on any urgent work, and it also tended to steady the rates of free labor. The jails indeed proved a most valu-

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The Sirhind Canal.

able institution, and contributed materially to the completion of the canal. The whole cost of the canal up to its opening in November 1882 was about 407 lakhs of rupees. The canal was opened with great ceremony by the Viceroy (Lord Ripon) in the presence of the Native Chiefs who had largely contributed to the cost of the undertaking.

The Jamna.

The Jamna emerges from the hills at Kalesar, where the channel is covered with boulders and the current is swift and strong. But the head works of the Eastern and Western Jamna Canals at Khara and Tájawála soon divert the greater part of the water, and, below Tájawála, the bed is only full in the rains. In that season the local drainages are often more than enough to fill the canal, and it sometimes becomes necessary to shut off the river entirely. To the south of Tájawála the main stream runs on the border of the Saháranpur and Ambála districts as far as Nawázpur below which and just above the junction of the Som and the Jamna there are two or three Saháranpur villages on this side of the river. The Som joins the Jamna at Kunalsi. The Khádir to the north of the Som is cut up by several old river-beds. One of these, the Tufanan, has been much enlarged since last settlement, and has done a great deal of mischief. Fortunately all these channels are caught in the Som, and prevented from injuring the southern Khádir. Below the point where the Som joins it the Jamna has a sandy bed. It is steadily cutting to the west and is carrying away year by year some of the finest land in the Khádir. Just above the railway bridge at Lapra, the river is joined by the Buddhi Jamna, and a few miles lower down it leaves the tahsíl at Naharpur. Its floods often do serious damage, and the dry lands of the Khádir are much superior to those which the river overflows. The drainage channels of the southern Khádir are petty, and form a striking contrast to the wide sandy boulder-strewn river-beds to the north of the Som.

The Western Jamna Canal.

The head works of the canal are situated at Tájawála, where a very strong masonry dam has been built across the Jamna. Between Tájawála and Dádupur the canal follows for the most part an old river-bed, the slope is great, and the current very strong. Near Dádupur it is joined by the Pathrála and Som torrents, which sometimes bring down an enormous volume of water in the rains. The control of these streams was the most difficult problem which the engineers of the canal in the early days of its history had to face. The water they discharged was worse than useless, and had to be got rid of at any cost. Elaborate works have been constructed to regulate the supply of the canal below Dádupur, and to conduct the floods of the two torrents into a wide sandy bed, which finally meets the Jamna at Kunalsi. From Dádupur the canal flows south in an artificial channel to Buria, below which a remarkable spur of the Bangar highlands forces it to make a great curve to the east. During the rest of its course in Jagádhri it hugs the Bangar bank pretty closely, and flowing south-west passes below the

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The Western Jamna Canal.

railway bridge at Abdullapur and finally leaves the tahsíl at Daurang. The channel below Buria is an old river-bed. The Jamna flowed below Buria as late as 1760 A.D., when Ahmad Shah forced the passage of the stream at this point in the teeth of a Mahratta army. The banks are very low and some damage is done by water-logging. But the neighbourhood of the canal does more good than harm, for below Buria a strip of land on both banks is kept always moist, and yields valuable crops without artificial irrigation. The use of canal water is practically confined to ten estates of the Khizrabad parganah situated to the north of Dádupur, and to a few villages in the Pípli tahsíl.

A more detailed description of the canals of the Ambála district has been furnished by the Canal Department and is published at length in the Provincial volume of the Gazetteer.

Rainfall.

Table No. III. shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year from 1872-73 to 1891-92. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. III A. and III B. The normal rainfall may be taken at 32 inches for the year in Ambála, 30 in Khárar, 28 in Rúpar, 38 in Naráingarh, 40 in Jagádhri and 28 in Pípli. The district is in this respect well situated and there are comparatively few years in which the rains fail altogether. The rainfall is, however, very irregular and the variations from year to year are excessive, the crops in the south of the district especially being liable to almost as much damage from excessive moisture and floods as from drought. The amount of rain required for the spring crops, when once the ground has been saturated sufficiently to admit of sowing, is comparatively small, but the outturn depends largely on the timely fall of the winter rains. Unfortunately these rains are very capricious, and the rabi crop is in consequence often light. In the district, as a whole, the kháríf harvest is decidedly the more important of the two. Here again the principal revenue paying crops maize, sugarcane, cotton and rice are constantly liable to damage either from the rain not coming soon enough to enable the people to sow at the proper time, or from untimely breaks alternating with excessive floods. The variability of the rains is well shown by the table on page 344 of Mr. Blandford's work on the Climates and Weather of India, published in 1889. In July, for instance, the mean rainfall is 11 inches, but the actuals have varied between 3 inches and 30. In August again they have varied from nothing to 26 inches as against an average of 8, and there are great vicissitudes in almost every month.

Climate.

The climate of Ambála is fairly good, but the changes of temperature are severe. From the middle of April to the end of June hot winds blow strongly from the west and there are frequent heavy dust storms. During the rains the country becomes saturated and fever is common everywhere, the mortality from this cause in years of excessive flood such as 1884

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Climate.

being very high indeed. The cold weather comes on suddenly in November or December before the people have recovered their strength after an epidemic of fever, and the result is much further loss of life from pneumonia. The two northern tahsíls of Khárar and Rúpar are the only parts of the district in which the people are of really robust physique, and there has been little or no increase of population in the district as a whole for the last twenty years. The southern half of the Pípli tahsíl is a specially unhealthy tract as much land there remains under water for a long time in years of excessive rainfall, owing to the formation of the country and the way in which it is traversed by petty channels which cannot carry off the drainage poured into them. Unfortunately also these years of excessive rainfall generally follow close after years of drought such as 1860-61, 1877-78 and 1883-84, and find the people already weakened by more or less widely spread failure of crops when they are ill-prepared to withstand the effects of disease.

Disease.

Tables Nos. XI., XIA. and XIB. give the annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district for the past nine years, and table No. XLIV. the corresponding figures for the principal towns for the last five years. Table No. XII. shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes and lepers as ascertained at the Census of 1881 and 1891, while table No. XXXVIII. shows the working of the dispensaries since 1887. Blindness is extremely prevalent, the rate of about one in two hundred of the total population being higher in this district than any other of the Province.

SECTION B.—GEOLOGY, FAUNA AND FLORA.

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Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Geology.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the Province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medlicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published *in extenso* in the Provincial volume of the *Gazetteer* series, and also as a separate pamphlet.

Minerals.

Gold is found in minute quantities among the sand washed down by many of the hill streams, especially those of the Khárar tahsíl. The only mineral products of any importance are the *kunkur* block quaries of the Patharheri and Patharmájra villages near Rúpar, and the limestone in the Morni hills. The *kunkur* quarries are a peculiar formation found in one small cluster of villages only. The houses and wells in these villages are built from the large blocks of conglomerate dug up a little below the surface of the soil, and the quarries were largely resorted to while the Sirhind Canal was under construction, though they have not been much used in later years. The limestone of Morni is found in considerable quantities in the beds of hill streams, and in some years the lime kilns have brought in a large revenue to the proprietor of the Morni tract. The kilns are erected in the lower hills, where wood and stone are abundant. They are made of a cylindrical shape like a well, about 10 or 12 feet in diameter and the same in height; and there are two openings or valves to each furnace. The kiln is then charged with fuel consisting of green wood, the stone to be calcined is heaped on the top, and the whole is ignited and burns for 36 hours. The stone is thrown on to the kiln little by little. In four days the whole cools, and the stone is found to be calcined and of a white colour. It is then slaked by throwing water on it, and the result is lime in powder. In some places the kiln consists merely of a hole dug in the ground.

The profits from these kilns varied between 1881 and 1887 from Rs. 500 to nearly Rs. 3,000 a year. Since 1887 the kilns have been discouraged as it was found that the petty contractors by whom they were worked were doing much harm to the forest growth of the hill sides by reckless timber cutting to supply the fuel to work the kilns. The only other mineral industry of the district is in and about Mani Májra of the Kharar tahsíl, where a few stonemasons earn a petty livelihood by the manufacture of millstones for small hand or water mills from the boulders found in the bed of the Ghaggar stream.

Wild animals, sport.

The district has the reputation for being among the best of the Punjab for sport of various kinds. This is however not saying much, and most of the favourite spots for game have been so much shot over that a good bag can no longer be easily made anywhere within the limits of the district. Tigers and panthers have been frequently shot by the Forest Officer in

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Wild animals, sport.

the Kalesar Government forest reserve, and are occasionally to be had in the Morni hills by officers who can afford the time and money to beat through a large area of hill jungle. It is however little use attempting big-game in Morni unless the party is able to stay several days in the tract and organise operations on a somewhat large scale, and even then the beat fails much more often than not, though panthers are occasionally to be found anywhere in the low hills, and a few years ago one even made his way down to the Cantonment of Ambála, falling a victim eventually in the Commissariat yard. Of other animals dangerous to life or property there are a few bears in and about Morni, and a number of hyaenas and wolves in the hills or broken ground just below the Siwáliks. Wild pigs also do much damage to crops under the hills and in the Pípli tahsíl, but the nature of the ground is against hunting them on horseback. Of the deer tribe the district contains no fewer than seven different kind. Sámbar, chítal and kákar are fairly plentiful in the wilder hilly tracts, especially in Morni. Chikára or ravine deer are occasionally shot in Rúpar, and nilgai and parha are common enough in the thick *dhák* jungles of Pípli while herds of the Indian antelope (black buck) are to be found in all parts of the district, especially in the Ambála and Jagádhri tahsíls and in the western half of Rúpar. The small game shooting is generally poor, but black partridges are plentiful in the Pípli jungles, and grey partridges and hares may be picked up in any of the wilder parts of the district. A good day's snipe shooting can sometimes be got near Mubárikpur on the Ghaggar stream, about a mile from the railway bridge, or on the jhíls along the Western Jamna Canal, both up and down stream from Jagádhri, or again in a small tract of marshy land between the Sirhind Canal and the Sutlej in the Rúpar tahsíl about the 12th to the 15th mile of the canal. For wild duck and geese the best known places are a large jhíl about 8 miles from Thánesar in the Pípli tahsíl, on the way from that town to Pehowa, where the birds are numerous enough but difficult to get at without boats and a number of guns, and the smaller jhíls of the Jagádhri tahsíl, while fair duck shooting is to be had along the Sutlej also with an occasional chance at a kúlan. Lastly some mention may be made of the pheasant, jungle fowl and green pigeon shooting to be had in Morni by those who know where to go for it and are not too much tied down to time.

Fish.

There is excellent máhásir fishing at Dádupur and Tájawála in Jagádhri and in the Sutlej below the canal bridge at Rúpar. A great variety of fish are caught by the natives with nets both in the rivers and hill streams, and are brought to market in Ambála Cantonment. The best for eating are the rohu, sewal and chilwa, the last being a tiny little fish caught in great quantities with small meshed nets after a freshet in the Ghaggar. They are very good eating when about the size of white bait or only a little larger, but like nearly all the

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common fish of the rivers they have a strong muddy flavour when full grown.

Wild animals, sport.

A complete list of the birds, beasts and fish of this part of the country is given in the Ludhiána Gazetteer, with the scientific names and a short account of the habitat, &c., of each. Nearly all those mentioned in the Ludhiána list are found in Ambála and reference may be made to that list by any one requiring a fuller account of the game of the country. It is still possible to get a fair day's all-round shooting in Ambála by going well out of the ordinary range of soldiers from Cantonments, but the sportsman cannot expect to make a large bag without working hard and giving up a good deal of time to it. A few of the larger Sardárs preserve game in a small way in their tracts of grazing jungle known as *bírs*, the largest *bír* being at Shahzádpur in the Naráingarh tahsíl.

Reptiles.

Among deadly snakes the *cobra* and *karait* are by no means uncommon even in Ambála itself, and travellers during the rains would do well to look rather carefully round the small outlying bungalows of the district when taking up their abode there. The large black scorpion is likely enough to be found under the *darri*, even if there is nothing worse to be seen. The Russell's Viper (*Daboia Russellií*) is or was very common about Thanesar, and on one occasion only a few years back as many as eight were killed in a single day in the compound of the Thánesar bungalow. There are plenty of small crocodiles in the Sutlej. They are nearly always harmless and are taken no account of by the inhabitants of villages along the banks. It is often easy to get a shot at a crocodile lying basking in the sun just out of the water, but it takes a very good shot to secure the animal from slipping back into the river even when hit.

Rewards are given for killing wild animals as follows: For a tiger Rs. 15; for leopard or panther, Rs. 8; for a wolf, Rs. 5; for tiger, panther or wolf cubs, half these sums. The only deadly snakes for which rewards are now given are for *cobras* at 8 annas a head and *karaits* at 4 annas. During the five years ending 31st March 1892, Rs. 678 have been given in rewards for the destruction of wild animals, including rewards for eight tigers.

Trees.

Trees can be grown well in all parts of the district, the commonest being the mango (*mangifera indica*), mulberry, *kíkar* (*acacia arabica*), *ber* (*zizyphus jujuba*), *farásh* (*tamarix orientalis*), *shisham* (*dalbergia sissu*) and *dhak* (*butea frondosa*). Good mango groves are common in all tahsíls, especially in Kharar, and in many villages they are a considerable source of income to the landowner. The *kikar* is the most generally useful timber tree throughout the district, the wood being in great demand for household and agricultural implements. The more provident among the villages keep up regular preserves of *kikar* trees in their waste lands and sell the trees every 15 or 20 years to charcoal contractors. The amount realised is often several

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Trees.

hundred rupees, and if the village is poor the money is divided among the proprietors according to land revenue shares, but the commoner practice is for the village to combine together and spend the money on repairs to the village well, rest-house or mosque, as the case may be. Where the soil is poor or the proprietors are not good cultivators *kikar* trees are allowed to grow also all over the cultivated lands notwithstanding the well known fact that the shade of this tree blights the crops beneath it almost more than any other. In the Ambála tahsíl especially the *kikar* is almost the only tree which will grow at all in the hard clay lands and its black stems and nearly leafless boughs add to the cheerless appearance of these barren looking tracts. The *ber* is found principally in groves round Ambála city, where it is grown for the sake of the fruit, and in the Rúpar tahsíl where it supplies the material for the thorn hedges round the sugarcane fields. The *dhak* jungles of Pípli cover an area of upwards of 150 square miles. The trees constitute a valuable property in this otherwise poor tract. The flowers yield a yellow dye and the gum exuding from the bark is sold as a drug, while the leaves afford good fodder for buffaloes, and the outer fibres of the root are used to cover well ropes to protect them from friction. The timber of the *dhak* stands long exposure to water without rotting and is therefore specially used for the wooden foundation (*nimchak*) of wells. The principal value of the tree is however as fuel. It makes excellent firewood for which there is a large demand in Ambála Cantonments. The jungle can be sold every eight or nine years, and the supply and carriage of this fuel is a large source of income to the Pípli villages along the Grand Trunk Road. Large patches of *dhak* jungle are found also in parts of the Ambála, Jagádhri and Naráingarh tahsíls and most of the leading Sardárs have a small area under *dhak*, which they own as *bir* in some one of the villages of their jágír.

Besides these more important trees there are a great variety of others grown primarily for shade along the roadsides or from religious motives in the vicinity of shrines and village sites. These need not be separately mentioned as a sufficiently full account of both trees, shrubs and grasses, has been given in the Karnál and Ludhiána Gazetteers. The forests proper of the district in Kalesar and Morni are described in Chapter IV (Section A). There is also a large tract of densely wooded jungle in the Neli circle of the Kharar tahsíl with a small forest of date palms (*khajur*) which are a special feature of that curious tract. The existing trees are of little value either for their timber or fruit, but an attempt has been recently made to introduce a better variety of palm into the tract, which appears to be better suited by nature for the growth of palms than any other part of the district, though the trees are found here and there all over the district and are common enough in the riverain tracts.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

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History.
Early history.

The antiquities and ancient history of Ambála, and especially of the Kurukshetra or battle-field of the Pándavas and Kauravas and of the numerous traditions connected with it that centre in Thánesar, have been discussed very fully by General Cunningham in his Archæological Survey Reports I, 245; II, 212-231; XIV, 72-106. Ambála and its neighbourhood are intimately connected with the earliest dawn of Indian history. The strip of country included between the Saraswati and Drishadvati (the Sarusti and the Ghaggar) is the "Holy Land" of the Hindu faith, the first permanent home of Aryans in India, and the spot in which their religion took shape. Hence the sanctity, even in modern times, of the waters of the Sarusti, which attracts worshippers from all parts of India, even from Orissa and remote portions of Bengal. The towns of Thánesar and Pehowa are the chief centres of attraction, but its whole bank is lined with shrines. At Thánesar as many as 100,000 persons have been known, even of late years, to assemble on the occasion of an eclipse; and a tank, filled from the Sarusti, is yearly bathed in by double or treble that number. Nor has subsequent history failed to supply food to keep alive the associations of remote antiquity. Thánesar and its neighbourhood, the Kurukshetra, teem with traditions of the great conflict of the Pándavas and Kauravas, and this fact, without doubt, has done much to stir up in the Hindu mind a lively desire to visit the sacred spots. The Mahábhárata, recording as it does the exploits of these heroes of antiquity, has exercised, and still does exercise, an unbounded influence over the masses of the people. It is always in their thoughts, and such religious ideas as they have are drawn exclusively from its pages. The scenes therefore whereon the great drama was played out cannot fail to interest and attract them. Modern rules of sanitation have done much to render unpopular the fairs at which pilgrims congregate, and the numbers have of late years undoubtedly fallen off. It is probable, however, that only idle lookers-on will be deterred by such measures, and Thánesar will always continue to be a resort of the faithful from all parts of India.*

The name Kurukshetra, or "field of Kuru," is derived from Kuru, father of Santanu, great-grandfather of the heroes of the Mahábhárata. Kuru is said to have become an ascetic on the bank of the great holy lake to the south of Thánesar. The true limits of the holy tract cannot be ascertained with certainty.

* See account of the town of Thánesar in Chapter VI.

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According to popular belief the number of places of pilgrimage in it is 360, but no complete list of them is given. Its circuit is variously said to be 20, 40 and 48 *kos*, and these accounts would make it include the town of Jínd, which is 65 miles distant from Thánesar. This account General Cunningham* rejects as a late invention of interested Brahmans, wishing to curry favour with the *Sikh Rája* of Jínd, by bringing his capital within the range of the holy circuit; and he concludes by accepting as the probable boundary a line drawn from Ratan Jaksh on the Sarusti, westwards to Pehowa, from Pehowa southwards to beyond Pundri, from thence eastward to Naráina, and from Naráina northward again to Ratan Jaksh. This circuit is as nearly as possible 80 miles, or 40 *kos*; and within its limits lie all the famous places connected with the history of the Pándus. It may therefore be accepted as approximately correct.

Later Hindu period.

Of the later period of Hindu history there is but little to record. The capital of the country at this time was the town of Srughna, the site of which General Cunningham has identified† with the village of Sugh, situated in a bend of the old bed of the Jamna, now utilized for the Western Jamna Canal, and close to Jagádhri and Buria. Srughna is mentioned by Hwen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century, as a town $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit, the capital of a kingdom and a seat of considerable learning, both Budhistic and Brahminical. He describes the kingdom of Srughna as extending to the mountains on the north, and to the Ganges on the east, with the Yamuna or Jamna flowing through the midst of it. The capital he represents as having been partly in ruins; but General Cunningham thinks that there is evidence in the coins found on the spot to show that it was occupied down to the time of the Muhammadan conquest. He thus describes the extent and position of the ruins:—

"The village of Sugh occupies one of the most remarkable positions that I have seen during the whole course of my researches. It is situated on a projecting triangular spur of high land, and is surrounded on three sides by the bed of the old Jamna, which is now the Western Jamna Canal. On the north and west faces, it is further protected by two deep ravines, so that the position is a ready-made stronghold, which is covered on all sides, except the west, by natural defences. In shape it is almost triangular, with a large projecting fort or citadel at each of the angles. The site of the north fort is now occupied by the castle and village of Dyálgarh. The village of Amadalpur stands on the site of the south-east fort, and that of the south-west is unoccupied. Each of these forts is 1,500 feet long and 1,000 feet broad, and each face of the triangle which connects them together is upwards of half-a-mile in length, that to the east being 4,000, and those to the north-west and south-west 3,000, feet each. The whole circuit of the position is therefore 22,000 feet, or upwards of 4 miles, which is considerably more than the $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles of Hwen Thsang's measurement. But as the north fort is separated from the main position by a deep sandy ravine, called the Rohára Nala, it is possible that it may have been unoccupied at the time of the pilgrim's visit. This would reduce the circuit of the position to 19,000 feet or upwards of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and bring it into accord with the pilgrim's measurement. The small village of Sugh occupied the west side of the position, and the small town of Buria lies immediately to the north of Dyálgarh. The occupied houses, at the time of my visit, were as follows: Mándalpur 100, Sugh 125, Dyálgarh 150, and Buria 3,500, or altogether 3,875 houses, containing a population of about 20,000 souls.

* Archæological Report, 1863-64, pp. 215-216.

† Arch. Surv. Rep., 1863-64, pp. 226 and *ff*.

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"Of Sugh itself the people have no special traditions, but there is a ruined mound to the north-west of the village, and several foundations made of large bricks inside the village. Between Sugh and Amadalpur there is a square tank called the Surajkund, which is probably old, but the temple on its bank is a modern one. On the east and south-east faces, the earthen ramparts still form huge mounds on the crest of the high bank. A line of similar mounds extends from north-north-east to south-south-west nearly across the middle of the position, and towards the east there are several isolated mounds. But on none of these could I find any ancient remains, excepting broken bricks of large size from 9½ to 10½ inches broad and 2¼ to 3½ inches in thickness. These large bricks are unmistakable evidences of antiquity; but the great number of ancient coins that are found all over the place affords evidence equally certain and much more interesting. The place was said to have been visited only six weeks before by Lieutenant Pullan's coin collector; but so plentiful is the yield that I obtained no less than 125 old Hindu coins of all ages, from the small Diliál pieces of the Chohán and Túnar Rájás of Delhi, to the square punch-marked pieces of silver and copper, which are certainly as old as the rise of Budhism, and which were probably the common currency of India as early as 1,000 B. C. According to the traditions of the people the city of Mándar or Mándalpur formerly covered an extent of 12 *kos*, and included Jagádhri and Chaneti on the west with Buria and Dyálgarh to the north. As Jagádhri lies three miles to the west, it is not possible that the city could ever have extended so far, but we may reasonably admit that the gardens and summer houses of the wealthier inhabitants may possibly have extended to that distance. At Chaneti, which lies two miles to the north-west, old coins are found in considerable numbers; but it is now entirely separated from Buria and Dyálgarh by a long space of open country.

Thánesar, also, is mentioned by Hwen Thsang as the capital of a *quasi*-independent kingdom. Only a small portion of this, however, would fall within the boundaries of the present district of Ambála. Thánesar was sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazni.

Muhammadan period.

There is but little to record of the district during the period covered by the Mughal empire. It appears to have formed part of the Sirhind Division or Sarkár of the Delhi Province or Subáh, and to have been administered principally from Sirhind. Ambála itself was probably founded in the 14th century, but the town was originally nothing more than a cluster of villages united together in one common village site, and such importance as the place has is of quite recent growth. Tradition does not recall the name of any prominent local administrator under the empire, and the principal relics of Muhammadan rule are a few of the *minárs* (brick pillars 24 feet high) marking the old trunk road from Lahore to Delhi, the alignment of the old Western Jamna Canal, and some faint traces of an abortive attempt to irrigate from the Sutlej in the Rúpar tahsíl by a small channel known as the Mirza Kandi Canal. The main fact about the district is that by its geographical position it was destined to feel the effects of every important campaign in Northern India. Hemmed in on one side by the hills and on the other by the great jungle tracts bordering on the Rájpútána désert, Ambála was the central spot through or near which every horde of invaders was bound to pass on the way to the battle-ground of India at Pánipat, with Delhi as the ultimate goal. Placed in the direct track of successive invasions the people were ground down till they lost all power of resistance to difficulty, and hence the ease with which the country fell, almost without a

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blow, into the hands of the Cis-Sutlej Sikhs in 1763. The bitter and comparatively recent experience of the country under Sikh rule has blotted out nearly all recollection of Muhammadan times, and it is rare in Ambála to hear the word *Turk* used as in the Punjab districts as an anathema marking the survival of ancient hatred of the Mughal rulers.

Antiquities.

The following are among the objects of antiquarian interest relating to the Muhammadan period mentioned for the Ambála district in the Punjab collection of 1875:—

(1) Thaska, Tahsíl Pípli: the tomb of Shah Bhik, a very perfect masonry building, built in 1710, and still used as a place of worship by Mussalmáns.

(2) Shahabad, Tahsíl Pípli: the mosque known as Mastgarh, built by Shah Jehán in 1630, but appropriated by the Sikhs more than a century ago, and now used by them as a place of worship.

(3) Thánesar, Tahsíl Pípli: the tomb of Shekh Chilli, built of red granite and marble in 1660, and still in good preservation.

(4) Thánesar: Jama Masjid, built over four centuries ago by Ferukh Shah, now in ruins and imperfect.

(5) Buria, Tahsíl Jagádhri: the Rang Mahal, an old Muhammadan house built by Shah Jehán, a well built place with massive stone arches. The place is now a ruin, but with the interior tolerably preserved.

(6) Sadhaura, Tahsíl Naráingarh: the tomb of Shah Newáz, built in 1450, with a mosque dating from 1600. The mosque is a curiously built place with three domes of peculiar shape and an inscription in Arabic characters over the gateway.

(7) Sadhaura: the Sangni mosque built of blocks of grey stone over 400 years ago; a fair specimen but partly in ruins.

(8) Sadhaura: two old gateways built of red brick in 1618 according to an inscription on a stone let into one of the arches.

Mounds (*the*) marking the sites of ancient villages abound all over the district. In the Naráingarh tahsíl there are traces of what is said to have been a famous old Hindu city known as Karor, which, if tradition is to be believed, extended over a huge tract of country between Shahzádpur and Naráingarh. In the low hills of Tahsíl Rúpar near Bardar there are the remains of what is said to have been a Rájpút stronghold, which must also have been at one time an important place judging from the number of old wells which have come to light at various times. From coins dug up among the ruins the place would appear to have been inhabited in the comparatively recent times shortly before the Sikh conquest. Lastly among the antiquities

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of the district some notice may be made of the very curious place Siswán in the low hills of tahsíl Kharar. Though now of no importance Siswán was long the centre of an extensive trade with the Simla States and Yárkand, and in spite of its out-of-the-way position there was a thriving settlement of merchants there down to quite recent years, with a large bazaar built by Mr. Melvill about 35 years ago. The trade has been latterly destroyed owing to the bad faith of the merchants in their dealings with the traders in the far hills. The route is practically given up, and the place is now almost deserted and fast going to ruin, but the remains show that it must at one time have been highly prosperous.

The Sikhs.

The history may now pass on at one stride to the time of the fall of the Muhammadan Empire of Delhi. Its practical interest begins with the rise of the Sikh principalities south of the Sutlej during the latter half of the last century. As the central power of the Empire relaxed under the blows of the Mahratta on the one side and the Duráni on the other, the Sikh marauders of the Punjab proper began to extend their encroachments beyond the Sutlej and ere long acquired for themselves the heart of the country between that river and the Jamna. The first direct experience of the Sikhs had been in the time of Guru Tegh Singh Bahádur, who roamed the country from Hánsi to the Sutlej, and subsisted by plunder from 1664 to 1673. Under his successor Guru Gobind Singh a chain of forts was established at Anandpur in the Hoshiárpur district, a few miles north of the Sutlej, at Chamkor in the Rúpar tahsíl, and at Náhan in the hills, commanding the whole eastern portion of Ambála. For the first half of the eighteenth century there was no recognised leader of the Sikhs, who were, however, engaged in frequent struggles with the Delhi Empire, and were rapidly forming into the twelve great confederacies or *misls* described in pages 114 to 118 of *Cunningham's History*. The storm burst at last in 1763. The Sikhs of the Mánjha country of Lahore, Amritsar and Ferozepore combined their forces at Sirhind, routed and killed the Afghán Governor Zain Khan, and pouring across the Sutlej occupied the whole country to the Jamna without further opposition. "Tradition still describes how the Sikhs dispersed as soon as the battle was won, and how, riding day and night, each horseman would throw his belt and scabbard, his articles of dress and accoutrement, until he was almost naked, into successive villages, to mark them as his."* The chiefs hastily divided up among themselves and their followers the whole country to the Jamna, and asserted themselves as rulers of the people. In a very few cases, such as those of the Sayad Mír of Kotaha and the Ráipur and Rámgarh Rájpút Sardárs of Naráingarh, and the Baidwán Jat Sardárs of Kharar, the indigenous leaders of the country were strong enough to hold their own after a fashion, and to assimilate their position to that of the conquerors. Elsewhere the Sikh rule

* Cunningham's history of the Sikhs, page 110.

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was supreme, and the experience undergone by the people of the district at the hands of these merciless invaders has left its mark on the country to the present day.

The history of the next forty years is made up of the endless petty warfare of these independent Sikh chiefs among themselves, except when a common danger banded them to resist the encroachments of the more powerful States of Patiála and Mani Májra on the north, and Ládwa, Kaithal and Thánesar on the south. Each separate family, and each group of feudatories strong enough to stand alone, built itself a strong fort as a centre from which it could harry the whole neighbourhood. Many of these are still in existence and a marked feature of the district, recalling the extraordinary lawlessness of a period when literally every man's hand was turned against his brother. No attention was paid to the country by the British Government, which had fixed the Jamna as the furthest limit for political enterprise, and it is believed that the profoundest ignorance prevailed both as to the constitution, the rights and the political strength of the supposed rulers. From 1806 to 1808 the position rapidly changed. On the one hand, the Cis-Sutlej chiefs themselves were panic struck at the sudden danger threatened to them by the rise of Ranjít Singh's power from beyond the Sutlej. In the three successive years 1806 to 1808 raids were made by Ranjít Singh in person to Ludhiána, to Naráingarh and to Ambála. It was openly announced by him that he intended swallowing up the whole country to the Jamna, and it was realised that one power and one only could prevent his immediate success. On the other hand, the British Government feared a new danger from the north by a combined invasion of the French, the Turks and the Persians, and it was hastily decided to give up the Jamna as the boundary, and to trust to the new principle of alliance with a strong buffer State at Lahore. At the same time it was recognised that Ranjít Singh was himself a source of danger not to be despised, and, with the Government in this mood in 1808, an impulse was easily given to the policy of active interference by the arrival at Delhi of a deputation represented by Jínd, Patiála and Kaithal, to invoke assistance for the Cis-Sutlej States. Some help had been given to the British by Jínd, Kaithal and Tháunesar in the struggle with the Mahrattas five years before. It was apparently assumed that the whole territory to the Sutlej was parcelled out among a few leading States of the same character through whom the country could be strongly governed, and the efforts of authorities were aimed at the two-fold object of, on the one hand, securing an effective alliance with Ranjít Singh, and on the other, extending British protection to these lesser States ranging from the Jamna to the Sutlej.

Proclamations of 1809 and 1811.

The overtures were eventually successful, and a definite treaty was made with Ranjít Singh on the 25th April 1809, by which he surrendered his new acquisitions south of the Sutlej, and bound himself to abstain from further encroachments on the left bank

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of that river. The treaty was followed up in May 1809, by the celebrated proclamation of Colonel Ochterlony, on behalf of the British Government to the Cis-Sutlej chiefs. This proclamation beginning with the quaint wording that it was "clearer than the sun and better proved than the existence of yesterday" that the British action was prompted by the chiefs themselves, is given in full in Appendix 10 of *Cunningham's History*, and at page 122 of the *Punjab Rájas*. It includes seven short articles only, of which Nos. 1 to 5 are important; Nos. 1 to 3 limited Ranjít Singh's power and declared the Cis-Sutlej chiefs sole owners of their possessions free of money tribute to the British; while Nos. 4 and 5 required them in return on their side to furnish supplies for the army, and to assist the British by arms against enemies from any quarter as occasion might hereafter arise.

It is impossible to read the history of these transactions without seeing that the Government were in reality taking a most important step almost in the dark. Instead of finding the Ambála territory under the control of a few central States, they soon realised that they had given it over for ever to hordes of adventurers with no powers of cohesion, who aimed only at mutual aggression, and whose sole idea of Government was to grind down the people of the country to the utmost limit of oppression. The first point was easily settled by a sharp reminder given in a supplementary proclamation of 1811, that every man would have to be content with what he held in 1809, and that the British Government would tolerate no fighting among themselves. It was, however, found that as a fact the so-called Cis-Sutlej Sovereign States were represented, as far as Ambála was concerned, by some thirty petty rulers with estates ranging from 20 to over 100 villages, and by a host of small fraternities comprising many hundreds of the rank and file among the followers of the original conquerors, who had been quartered over the country with separate villages for their maintenance, and who were all alike now vested with authority as independent rulers by the vague terms of the proclamation of 1809. Published works have nowhere very clearly recognised how sorely the Government repented of its mistake; but there seems no doubt as to the facts; and it is not to be wondered at that Sir David Ochterlony should have privately admitted to the Governor-General in 1818 that the proclamation of 1809 had been based on an erroneous idea.

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From 1809 to 1847 persistent efforts were made to enforce good government through the Political Agency at Ambála among the endless semi-independent States. The records of the time bear witness to the hopeless nature of the undertaking. They teem with references to the difficult enquiries necessitated by the frequent disputes among the principalities, by their preposterous attempts to evade control, and by acts of extortion and violent crime in their dealings with the villages. Year by year Government was driven in self-defence to tighten the reins, and every opportunity was taken to strengthen its hold on the country

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by enforcing its claims to lapse by escheat on the death without lineal heirs of the possessors of 1809 or their descendants. It was thus that the British District of Ambála gradually grew up, each successive lapse being made the occasion for regular settlements of the village revenues and the introduction of direct British rule. At the same time Government scrupulously observed the engagements of 1809, and with the exception of the prohibition of internal war by the proclamation of 1811 the powers and privileges of the chiefs remained untouched. Each chief, great and small alike, had within his own territory absolute civil, criminal, and fiscal jurisdiction, subject only to the general authority of the Agent to the Governor-General. No tribute was taken from them, and, though they were required, in the case of war, to aid the Government, yet no special contingent was fixed. The right to escheats was the sole return for its protection which the Government demanded. Throughout a long period of peace, during which, while north of the Sutlej every vestige of independence vanished before the encroachments of Ranjít Singh, the Cis-Sutlej Chiefs enjoyed a complete immunity from invasion, and retained undiminished rights of sovereignty. After thirty-six years, with the exception of a few States which had lapsed from failure of heirs, each chief still found himself the ruler of the territory which he or his fathers had held at the time when they passed under British protection.

The introduction of British rule.

In 1846-47 a fresh step had to be taken owing to passive obstruction or open hostility on the part of the chiefs, when called on to assist the Government with supplies and men during its campaign against the Trans-Sutlej Sikhs in 1845. No occasion had occurred for testing their gratitude for the benefits secured to them, until the declaration of the first Sikh war and the Sutlej campaign of 1845. But when tested, it miserably failed. Throughout the war, few of the chiefs displayed their loyalty more conspicuously than by abstaining from open rebellion. Their previous conduct had not been such as to encourage the British Government in its policy towards them. Almost without exception they had abused its indulgence, and made the security of its protection a means of extortion and excess of every kind. There was nothing whatever to admire in the internal management or administration of their estates, as was amply testified by the universal satisfaction with which the peasants of those estates which, from time to time, had lapsed, came under direct British management. It has been well said that "independence, for these Sikh Chiefs, had no nobler significance than the right to do evil without restraint, and to oppress the people who were so unfortunate as to be their subjects."*

Having thus already lost the confidence of the Government, the Sikh Chiefs in the Sutlej campaign forfeited all claim to consideration. It was seen that the time had arrived for the introduction of sweeping measures of reform; and the Government unhesitatingly resolved upon a reduction of their privileges.

* Griffin, "Rájas of the Punjab" p. 218.

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Several important measures were at once adopted. The police jurisdiction of most of the chiefs was abolished, the existing system being most unfavourable to the detection and punishment of crime. All transit and customs duties were also abolished, and, thirdly, a commutation was accepted for the personal service of the chief and his contingent. The despatch of the Governor-General, embodying this resolution, was dated November 7th, 1846. The only States exempted were: Patiála, Jínd, Nábha,* Farídkot, Maler Kotla, Chhachhrauli(Kalsia), Raikot, Buria and Mamdot. With these exceptions, the police jurisdiction was made over to European officers. The Political Agency of Ambála was transformed into a Commissionership, under an officer styled the Commissioner of the Cis-Sutlej States. His subordinates, however, under the titles of Deputy and Assistant Commissioners, while taking over the judicial and executive functions of the chiefs, still retained, for a time, their powers as political officers. At the same time the more serious offenders in the campaign of 1845 were visited with signal punishment. Their possessions were confiscated to Government and in some cases they were themselves removed as prisoners from the Province. One hundred and seventeen villages were in this way added to the British district in Pípli by confiscation from the Rája of Ládwa; 106 in Rúpar and Kharar from the Sardár of Rúpar; 72 in the same tahsíls from the Sodhís of Anandpur; and 89 in Naráingarh from the Rája of Kapurthala. As regards minor chiefs similar severe measures were considered unnecessary, though the majority "had not shown their loyalty in 1845 in any more conspicuous way than in not joining the enemy," and for a short time an attempt was made to leave them the unrestricted right of collecting the revenue of their villages in kind as hitherto. It soon however became apparent that the chiefs, deprived of their police jurisdiction, were unable to collect their revenue. A proposal was therefore made for a regular settlement of the land revenue. But before final orders had been passed upon this point, the second Sikh campaign commenced. It ended in the annexation of the Punjab, and in the removal of the political reasons which had hitherto complicated the question of the amount of power to be left to the Cis-Sutlej Chiefs. In June 1849, it was accordingly declared that, with the exception of the States already mentioned, all the chiefs should "cease to hold sovereign powers, should lose all criminal, civil, and fiscal jurisdiction, and should be considered as no more than ordinary subjects of the British Government in the possession of certain exceptional privileges."† The revenues were still to be theirs, but were to be assessed by British officers, and under British rules. The whole administration now vested in the British Government, and was placed under the superintendence of the recently formed Board of Administration at Lahore. The District Officers ceased to

* Nábha was exceptionally treated, one quarter of its territory being confiscated.

† Griffin's "Rájas of the Punjab," p. 217.

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exercise political functions, and the Commissioner was appointed the sole referee in disputes between the chiefs. The final step necessitated by the march of events was taken in 1852 when the revenue settlement begun for British villages in 1847 was extended to the villages of the chiefs. Thereafter the chiefs have ceased to retain any relics of their former power except that they are still permitted to collect direct from their villages the cash assessment of revenue as fixed at regular settlement. They have sunk to the position of jágírdárs, but as such retain a right to the revenue assigned to them in perpetuity, subject only to lapse on failure of heirs who are unable to trace descent as collaterals from the original holders of 1809 or such other year as may have been determined under the special circumstances of the family as the basis from which status shall be derived.

The mutiny.

The following account of the course of events in 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report. The proximity of the Cis-Sutlej States to the focus of the revolt rendered it a very difficult matter to uphold in it British authority as supreme. The inhabitants of a part of it were to a certain extent one with the rebels of Delhi in race, in feeling, and in creed; there is no natural boundary to separate the Punjab from the North-Western Provinces; and this undividedness of country, joined with the care entailed on the authorities by the imperative necessity for holding the Grand Trunk Road, made this division a very anxious charge. But Mr. Barnes, the Commissioner, and his District Officers nobly and successfully exerted themselves to put down all discontent and crime, and to show that we still had power and the means to keep it. The feudal chiefs were ordered to furnish their quotas of horse and foot, and the revenue they had hitherto paid in commutation was remitted. The following extract from Mr. Barnes' report will show the inestimable value of the services rendered to us also by the chiefs of the protected Sikh States; the first stroke towards securing their allegiance was taken by Mr. Forsyth, Deputy Commissioner of Ambála, in calling on the Rája of Patiála, at the very first *émeute*, to send in his troops, thus leading him at once to take a decided part, from which he has never since swerved. Mr. Barnes says:—

"The station of Ambála was left with four weak companies (about 250 men) of the 2nd Bengal Fusiliers, the 5th Regiment Native Infantry, and some six-pounder guns, to man which we had only native artillerymen. A redoubt was erected with the church in the centre, and the remaining residents were concentrated in the houses around. A militia was formed of uncovenanted officers; and the magazine, the treasure, and the commissariat stores were all lodged in the redoubt, which was garrisoned by a company of the Fusiliers. Owing to the defection of the Nassiri Battalion, there was no available escort for the siege train or for the ammunition so urgently needed by the army. I offered, however, to furnish political escorts, and accordingly the siege train came down from Phillour under a guard of horse and foot furnished by the Nábha Rája, and accompanied by a detachment of the 9th Irregulars under Lieutenant Campbell. The ammunition was conveyed by a party of the District police, and so, throughout the campaign, the most important military stores were constantly sent down under the charge of contingents furnished by the chiefs of the Cis-Sutlej States. Their troops protected our stations and patrolled the

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Grand Trunk Road from Ferozepore and Phillour down to the very walls of Delhi. The safety of this Province may be attributed to their loyalty and good example. The Rája of Jínd, with Captain McAndrew and a small but well-disciplined force, acted as the vanguard of the army, and by my directions kept always in advance. When the first detachment of Europeans reached Karnál, this little band proceeded twenty-two miles further to Pánipat, quieting the country, securing the road, and collecting supplies; and in this manner they advanced boldly to within twenty miles of Delhi. A detachment of the Jínd troops seized the bridge at Bagpat, and thus enabled the Meerut force to join head-quarters. A party of Jínd *sowárs*, with Captain Hodson at their head, rode into Meerut and opened our communication with that station. The troops of the Mahárája of Patiála guarded Thánesar and Ambála, and the safety of Ludhiána was entrusted to the Rája of Nábha and the Kotla Nawáb. These eminent services afforded by the Cis-Sutlej Chiefs are thus casually noticed as part of the history of the late campaign. I feel under the deepest obligations to them, and the Governor-General, in the *Gazette* announcing the fall of Delhi, has declared that they shall not be without their reward."

Next in importance to the securing of the Grand Trunk Road, and of the loyalty of the Native Chiefs, was the necessity for saving the treasuries from attack. They were all, at the commencement of the outbreak, under sepoy guards. Mr. Barnes promptly issued instructions to his District Officers, in obedience to which the Ambála treasure (Rs. 3,50,000) was placed under the 1st Fusiliers, and the Thánesar money (Rs. 10.00,000) sent to the same guard. Mr. Ricketts sent his Rs. 1,50,000 to the care of the two companies of the 8th Queen's Regiment at Phillour. Major Marsden at Ferozepore placed his in the entrenchment, where it was guarded by H. M.'s 61st Regiment. Only the Simla treasury remained under a guard of natives, and they, being Gurkhás of the Nassiri Battalion, were considered staunch. However, during their temporary mutiny, although the Simla treasury remained untouched, the branch treasury at Kasauli was plundered of Rs. 32,043, of which only Rs. 12,063 were recovered. Mr. Barnes thus describes the means adopted to secure ready and regular conveyance for stores and ammunition to the army, and sick and wounded men from it—means which never once failed of their end, and on which the District Officers reflect with an honest pride, that in no case was a single cart unreasonably delayed or a single rupee's worth of stores plundered:

"The requirements of the army became incessant, and the road was thronged with carts laden with every variety of stores. A bullock train was suggested by Mr. Forsyth to be carried on by the district officers. This arrangement proved defective in practice for the want of a general superintendent in charge of the whole line. I obtained leave from the Chief Commissioner to organize a 'Military Transport Train' under the agency of Captain Briggs, an able and zealous officer of great experience. His exertions and complete success deserve the special thanks of Government. We had been drained of our carriage, and no assistance could be drawn from either the Ganges Doáb or the Delhi territory The Army Commissariat could give no help. Carts that reached Delhi never came back, and there was imminent danger of a dead-lock. All these difficulties were overcome by Captain Briggs. His jurisdiction extended from Ferozpore to Delhi, 265 miles. A train of 30 waggons a day from each of the principal stations of Ambála, Ludhiána, and Karnál, and 14 waggons per diem from Ferozpore, was soon organized. The same number was also daily employed on the return journey. Stores of every description, especially the enormous demands for ordnance ammunition, were safely and regularly supplied to the army. The sick and wounded were comfortably conveyed from camp to Ambála. The train was in full operation from the 22nd July to the middle of October. The scheme

was eminently successful owing to the skill, tact, and indefatigable energy of Captain Briggs. He has fully acknowledged his obligations to the civil authorities of the Cis-Sutlej States, who gave him their utmost support. The cost of the train was Rs. 97,317, and it has fully realized the objects for which it was organized."

This division (in Mr. Barnes' words) "acted as a kind of breakwater: beyond was the raging sea; inside was comparative calm." It could not, however, be expected that the surface should be unruffled. At first the natives seemed aghast at the enormity of the odds against us; but after the first shock came the desire to rebel, and it required the strongest determination to quell incipient insurrection. The police were exhorted to use their arms freely against any one found in the act of perpetrating violent crime. The lawless and predatory were checked by the manifestation of a will on the part of the officers. Some were killed in pursuit, and 123 executed by process of law, partly by district officers sitting in commission, and partly by Mr. Barnes. Besides these, 258 mutineers were executed, and 102 sentenced to imprisonment, who deserved death, as they belonged to the mutinous regiments at Ferozepore. It was only by such measures that districts were controlled which were quickly escaping from our grasp.

It was known for some weeks previous to the outbreak that the minds of the native soldiers in this station were unsettled. On the 19th April mysterious fires began to occur, and, though they were at first attributed to the thatchers, the eyes of all the residents were gradually opened to see that the soldiery and none others were the real authors of them. Mr. Forsyth obtained positive information, on the 7th and 8th May, that the prediction of a rebellious clique among the sepoys was "that in the following week blood would be shed at Delhi or Ambála, and that a general rising of the sepoys would take place." On May the 10th, the day of the Meerut mutiny, the 5th and 60th Regiments Native Infantry, and the detached guard of the 60th at the treasury, simultaneously rushed to their bells of arms, and began loading their muskets. The treasury guard remained under arms the whole day in direct disobedience to orders. This overt act of mutiny was unconditionally forgiven by the military authorities, and the result was that large portions of these regiments afterwards joined the rebels at Delhi; the remainder, when ordered into jail on September 1st by the directions of the Chief Commissioner, attempted to fly, but were killed by the European troops, or afterwards captured and tried. Mr. Forsyth's exertions in procuring carriage at the first outbreak—when, as Mr. Barnes says, the natives, thinking our rule at an end, were deserting the town "like rats from a sinking ship"—were most successful. Mr. Forsyth says:—

"As soon as it was determined by the Commander-in-Chief that an onward move should be made, a sudden difficulty arose in the want of carriage. The Deputy Commissary-General having officially declared his inability to meet the wants of the army, the civil authorities were called upon to supply the demand. At Ambála there has always been a difficulty to furnish carriage of any kind, the carts being of a very inferior description. However, such as they were, they

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had to be pressed into service; and in the course of a week, after the utmost exertion 500 carts, 2,000 camels, and 2,000 coolies were made over to the Commissariat Department; 30,000 maunds of grain were likewise collected and stored for the army in the town of Ambála."

As soon as this first difficulty had been overcome, the necessity for preserving the peace of the district led Mr. Barnes to call on the commutation-tenure chiefs to furnish men instead of their usual tribute in money. By the operation of this order, a force of 459 foot and 259 horse was soon at our disposal, but the moral effect of these and the other influential chiefs siding with us was of far greater value than even the force they supplied. Mr. Barnes observes further:—

"In addition to these jágírdárs, who were bound to supply levies, several public-spirited individuals volunteered their own services and brought several followers. Among these the most prominent were Ráo Rahím Bakhsh, of Panjlása, who with 50 followers guarded the road between Ambála and Jagádhri and the Sirkardahs of Sadhaura, who furnished 60 men to protect the public and private buildings in the civil station, thus relieving our police from very heavy duty."

The civil courts in this district were for some time unavoidably closed. Mr. Forsyth's time was wholly engrossed by his pressing miscellaneous duties. Captain McAndrew, Assistant Commissioner, was on duty with the advanced guard of the Dehli field force. Mr. Plowden, Assistant Commissioner, was on detached duty on the river Jamna; and the time of the only remaining civil officer, Mr. Vaughan, Extra Assistant Commissioner, was entirely taken up with the very heavy duties of the treasury. It was not till Mr. C. P. Elliot was transferred from Lahore to Ambála that the court could be re-opened, and by his well-known industry and perseverance he rapidly cleared off all arrears in this department. Mr. Plowden was detached with a squadron of the 4th Light Cavalry under Captain Wyld, and two companies of the 5th Native Infantry under Captain Garstin, to keep down the turbulent population of the banks of the Jamna. He was out in camp from 19th May to November, and was always to be found wherever danger was threatening or insurrection abroad. His force (Mr. Barnes states) was the means of saving Saharanpur, whither he had gone to act in conjunction with Mr. Spankie, the energetic Magistrate and Collector of that place. Even when deserted and fired at by his Hindústáni troops, Mr. Plowden held on with his Sikhs, and eventually succeeded in checking the progress of the bold marauders, and destroying their short-lived power. Captain Gardner, a Dehli refugee, was sent with two other companies of the 5th Native Infantry to guard Rúpar. Mr. Barnes gave him authority to act as a Magistrate if needful, and he did excellent service. He remained there until the men were called in. The zeal he displayed led to his death, which occurred at Kasauli a short time afterwards from illness induced by the exposure and exertions which he had undergone.

Famines.

Ambála has only suffered once from serious famine since the formation of the district in 1847. This was in 1860-61 when the rains failed badly throughout the eastern Punjab.

Famines.

The distress was even then somewhat less severe in Ambála than in neighbouring districts, but was aggravated by the influx, which in such seasons always occurs, of refugees from Bikánir and Hariána, who flocked into the district in many instances only to die of starvation. There was widely spread failure of crops both in the autumn harvest of 1860 and the spring harvest of 1861, principally in the Ambála, Jagádhri and Naráingarh tahsíls (tahsíl Pípli being at that time included in the Tháuesar district), and the price of wheat rose to 8 sérs per rupee. Revenue amounting to Rs. 77,000 was suspended in the three tahsíls mentioned, and of this sum Rs 20,778 was eventually remitted in Ambála tahsíl and Rs. 14,062 in Jagádhri, while the collection of the balance of arrears was effected gradually as the district recovered with the good harvests which set in from the autumn of 1861.

In subsequent years there have been bad failures of crops in 1868-69, 1884-85, and 1890, involving revenue suspensions aggregating Rs. 45,509, Rs. 30,000 and Rs. 44,000 respectively, principally in the four southern tahsíls. There are no instances on record of serious distress from complete failure of crops in tahsíls Kharar and Rúpar, and though the distress in the remaining four tahsîls was undoubtedly severe in the years specified it was hardly of so acute a nature as to deserve the name of famine, while it has always been possible to recover the arrears of suspended revenue in full in subsequent years without excessive pressure on the people. The year 1869-70 was elsewhere one of famine. In Ambála, however, there was no great distress, the harvest being fairly good. Relief was necessarily provided for the mass of fugitives from Bikánir, Hissár, and Sirsa; but for the residents of the district scarcely any relief was required. All demands were met from funds locally subscribed. On the whole it may be said that although not largely protected by irrigation the greater part of the district is reasonably secure from prolonged scarcity owing to continuous failure of crops. There are great vicissitudes in particular seasons, but it is comparatively rare for two crops in succession to fail badly over a large area. The risk of such a calamity is greatest in tahsíls Pípli and Ambála and in these tahsils (and to a somewhat less extent in Naráingarh and Jágardhri) revenue may often be suspended with advantage, though it should seldom be necessary to remit any considerable items altogether.

Formation of the district.

It has been explained that the Ambála district was constituted in 1847 from territories which had lapsed to Government or been confiscated for misbehaviour during the period 1809-1846. The remainder of the district, as then constituted, covering five tahsils, included the large areas held in jágír by the representatives of hitherto independent chiefs, whose sovereign powers had been finally resumed in 1846-47. Tahsil Pípli was at that time a portion of the district of Tháuesar—a district like Ambála formed from lapsed and forfeited territory—and was not added to Ambála till the Tháuesar district was broken up in 1862.

Chapter II.

History.

Formation of the district.

The district of Thánesar included the estates of Thánesar which lapsed ⅗ths in 1832 and the remainder in 1850; Kaithal which lapsed in 1843, and Ládwa confiscated in 1846. Up to 1849 these estates had been administered by the Political Agent of Ambála and his Assistants. In that year, being incorporated with the Punjab, they were formed into one district under a Deputy Commissioner subordinate to the Commissioner of the Cis-Sutlej Division. In 1862 the district was abolished as a separate charge, and its territory distributed between the districts of Ambala and Karnál. The parganahs of Shahábad, Ládwa, and a part of Thánesar fell to Ambala, and the remainder, including Kaithal, went to Karnál. The tahsíls were at the same time remodelled. They had previously consisted of (1) Kaithal, (2) Gula, which included the Pehowa tract now in Karnál, (3) Thánesar, and (4) Ládwa. The last two included the villages now forming the Indri parganah of the Karnál tahsíl. In 1866 the Pehowa parganah was transferred from Karnál to Ambála, but in 1876 14 villages, and in 1889 the remaining 89 villages were again transferred from Pípli to the Kaithal tahsil of Karnál. The present Ambála district comprises almost the whole of 81, Sikh ilákas. The most important lapses of jágír estates since the first regular settlement have been due to failure of heirs in the Sialba estate in 1866 and in Manimájra in 1875. The lapse in the former case covered 63 villages with a revenue of Rs. 29,000 and in the latter 69 villages with a revenue of Rs. 39,100.

District officers.

The following statements give lists of officers who have held charge of the Ambála and Thánesar districts respectively, in recent years, omitting temporary appointments in which an officer's tenure lasted for a few months only.

AMBALA DISTRICT.

Names.	Dates.	Names.	Dates.
Captain Blair T. Reid ...	1855	Captain J. Fendall ...	1875
T. D. Forsyth, Esquire ...	1856	" E. P. Gurdon ..	1877
P. S. Melvill, Esquire ...	1858	T. W. H. Tolbort, Esquire...	1879
Captain A. L. Busk ..	1859	J. Frizelle, Esquire ...	1882
" J. S. Tighe ...	1863	A. R. Bulman, Esquire ...	1883
C. P. Elliott, Esquire ...	1867	J. C. Brown, Esquire ...	1884
Captain J. S. Tighe ...	1867	A. R. Bulman, Esquire ...	1884
" C. Beadon ...	1871	J. C. Brown, Esquire ...	1887
C. P. Elliott, Esquire ...	1872	A. R. Bulman, Esquire ...	1887
		C. E. Gladstone, Esquire ...	1890

THANESAR DISTRICT.

Names.	Dates.	Names.	Dates.
Captain A. L. Busk ...	1859	Captain F. J. Millar ...	1861
" A. J. Hawes ...	1859	" H. H. Umrston ...	1861
" N. W. Elphinstone...	1860	" W. G. Davies ...	1861
" F. S. Graham ...	1860	Colonel F. S. Voyle ...	1862

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of population.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tahsíl and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families; while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in the Census Report of 1891:—

Percentage of total population who live in villages		Persons	86·47
		Males	47·19
		Females	39·28
Average rural population per village			424
Average total population per village and town			488
Number of villages per 100 square miles			83
Average distance from village to village, in miles			1·15
Density of population per square mile of	Total area	Total population	428
		Rural population	371
	Cultivated area	Total population	682
		Rural population	589
	Culturable area	Total population	568
		Rural population	491
Number of resident families per occupied house		Villages	1·51
		Towns	1·49
Number of persons per occupied house		Villages	6·68
		Towns	6·21
Number of persons per resident family		Villages	4·37
		Towns	4·15

The district is on the whole densely populated, the figures running from nearly 600 to the square mile cultivated in Pípli to nearly 800 in Rúpar, though there are large tracts, especially in Pípli, where the country appears thinly peopled owing to the large proportion of waste areas. There are no statistics at present available showing the migration of the people according to the figures of the 1891 Census, but Table No. VI shows the principal districts and States with which the district has exchanged population, the number of migrants in each direction and the distribution of immigrants by tahsíls according to the 1881 figures. Further details will be found in Table No. XI and in supplementary tables C. to H. of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the same report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration in 1881 is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district by the Census of 1891 is 139,557 of whom 58,171 are males and 81,386 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Punjab is 99,106 of whom 36,016 are

Migration and birth-place of population.

Proportion per mille of total population.	Gain.	Loss.
Persons ...	103	116
Males ...	92	84
Females ...	116	156

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Migration and birth-place of population.

males and 63,090 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth-place :—

Distribution.	Proportion per mille of resident population born in			
	The district.	The province.	India.	Asia.
Males	897	961	993	994
Females	826	961	999	999
Persons	865	961	996	996

The following remarks on the migration to and from Ambála are taken from the Census Report of 1881 :—

"Here the effect of large cantonments in attracting population from a distance is at once apparent. Of the village population 92 per cent. is indigenous; of the town population only 73 per cent. On the other hand, the emigration to Lahore and Ferozepore, where as large or larger cantoments exist, is in excess of the immigration. But as between Ambála and the districts which march with it, the migration is in the direction of least pressure, and the proportion of emigrants to immigrants increases throughout, as the density of population of the receiving district decreases. The uninhabitable hill area included in Ambála makes the figures for density on total area misleading, and those for cultivated area afford a truer measure of the pressure of population. Excluding Simla and Delhi, the circumstances of which are exceptional, the migration to and from Ambála consists in taking population from the more densely peopled submontane districts, and giving it to the more sparsely peopled tracts to the south and south-west. Speaking generally, the proportion of males shows that the emigration to the districts from which it is receiving, and the immigration of those to which it is giving, are largely reciprocal in their character; while the movements in the opposite directions are to a great extent permanent, with a tendency to be temporary in the case of some of the more distant districts. The migration to and from Karnál, Ludhiána and the Native States all of which march with Ambála, is very largely reciprocal. The large excess of immigraton from the North-West Provinces is striking, but the figures for emigration are estimates only. If the excess exists, the presence of the cantonments no doubt partly explains it."

Increase and decrease of population.

The figures in the marginal statement show the population of the present district as it stood at the three enumerations of 1868, 1881, and 1891. The figures show an actual decrease of

	Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.
Actuals	1868 ...	1,028,418	564,038	464,380	394
	1881 ...	1,067,263	588,272	478,991	415
	1891 ...	1,033,427	567,381	466,046	428

population between 1881 and 1891 by 33,836, but this decrease is really nominal. In 1889, 89 villages with a population of 34,519 were transferred from the Pípli tahsíl to the Karnál district, and making due allowance for this change it would appear that the remaining population of the district has remained about stationary during the decade. Probably there has really been a small decrease, as the population of the Ambála Cantonment has in-

Increase and decrease of population

creased during the ten years by 10,330, representing a variation in the number of troops and followers present in the cantonments on the day of enumeration rather than a corresponding increase in the permanent population of the district.

It was calculated in 1881 that according to the normal increase of population as then ascertained the total for the district in 1891 would be 10,98,100, or allowed for the transferred villages 10,63,500. The actual figure by the 1891 Census return is 10,33,427, or about 30,000 less than was anticipated. The completion of the Sirhind Canal works in 1882 is to some small extent a reason for the non-fulfilment of the estimate of 1881, as with the opening of the canal the Rúpar convict gaol was transferred elsewhere and a considerable army of free laborers left the district in search of other employment. Possibly this may account for from 4,000 to 6,000 souls in all. For the rest it may be taken that the district has been fully populated for the last twenty years and that there is little scope for material increase. Moreover parts of the district, especially the Manimájra tract of tahsíl Kharar and the southern portion of tahsíl Pípli are notoriously unhealthy, while the whole of the four southern tahsils are liable to severe epidemics of fever, as in the year 1884, which effectually prevent that normal increase of population which might otherwise be expected.

The total urban population was returned at 1,40,332 in 1881 and 1,39,865 in 1891. Kharar and Radaur ceased to be classified as towns in 1891, while the Pehowa town was transferred to Karnál in 1889. Allowing for these changes the urban population in the remaining towns of the district is 11,105 larger than in 1881, but nearly the whole of the increase is accounted for by the addition of 10,330 in Ambála Cantonment which depends largely on accidental circumstances. The urban population properly so called has therefore remained nearly stationary. Jagádhri town has increased by 729 during the decade, Ambála city and Civil Lines by 1,501, Shahábad by 1,255, and Thánesar by 106. In the remaining four towns the 1891 figures show some decrease. The only considerable decrease (1,633) is in Rúpar town, and this is accounted for by the closing of the Sirhind Canal construction works at Rúpar. The towns of the district are all petty places of no such commercial importance as to lead to an expectation of much development. Inclusive of the towns the variation in population by tahsíls since 1881 is shown in the margin. It will be borne in mind

Tahsils.	Total Population. 1881.	Total Population. 1891.	Percentage of population of 1891 on that of 1881.
Ambála ...	2,20,477	2,30,567	105
Kharar ...	1,67,869	1,68,642	100
Rúpar ...	1,54,303	1,46,816	95
Naráingarh ...	1,45,633	1,41,326	97
Jagádhri ..	1,69,640	1,68,634	99
Pípli ...	2,09,341	1,77,442	85
Total Districts ..	1,067,263	10,33,427	97

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of population.

that the transfer of villages from Pípli in 1889 vitiates the figures for that tahsíl and for the total district for purposes of comparison, and that the increase in tahsíl Ambála is due to the additional population of cantonments only.

Births and deaths.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the ten years from 1882 to 1891. The distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these ten years, over the 12 months of the year is shown in Table Nos. XI A and XI B. The figures below show the annual birth and death rates per mille since 1882, calculated on the population of 1881 up to 1890 :—

	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	Average.
Births ...	32	37	34	27	32	30	28	32	30	32	31
Deaths ...	27	23	54	26	28	36	26	25	41	32	32

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving; but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and especially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881 which will be found at page 56 of that report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death rates in individual towns as are available will be found in Table No. XLIV and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

Age, sex, and civil condition.

The figures for age, sex and civil condition are given in great detail in Table Nos. VII and VIII of the Census Report of 1891, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII of the Census Report for 1881. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for tahsils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures of 1891 :—

	0—1	1—2	2—3	3—4	4—5	0—4	5—9	10—14	15—19
Males ...	366	265	256	264	289	1,439	1,178	1,173	1,132
Females ...	423	289	295	283	287	1,577	1,177	1,029	1,162
	20—24	25—29	30—34	35—39	40—44	45—49	50—54	55—59	60 and over.
Males ...	1,058	1,029	691	688	333	493	174	350	262
Females ...	1,036	1,045	605	727	318	553	145	373	253

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Age, sex and civil condition.

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes in 1891 is 5,490 as against 5,600, 5,485 and 5,512 according to the returns of the three previous enumerations of 1855, 1868 and 1881. The proportion varies slightly for the different religions of the country. The number among Christians is 8,388, this high rate of proportion being obviously due to the large number of unmarried men in the British troops of the garrison.

In the Census of 1891, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of life was found to be as shown in the margin. The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period.

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindús.	Sikhs.	Musalmáns
0—1	983	934	886	1,018
1—2	896	884	783	961
2—3	888	926	860	1,008
3—4	894	880	743	925
4—5	812	803	758	848

Infirmities.

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes and lepers in the district in 1881 and 1891. The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables Nos. XII, to XV, of the Census Report for 1891 give further details of the age and caste of the infirm. Ambála, which is third in order among the Punjab districts in respect of total population, stands second in respect of the number of insane, third as regards deaf-mutes, first as regards the blind and second as regards lepers. The number of lepers in the district is somewhat large in consequence of the existence of a Leper Asylum at Ambála. The number of persons afflicted with blindness is lamentably great. The proportion per 10,000 in the case of each infirmity is somewhat lower than by the corresponding figures for 1881, but it is probable that this is due rather to the transfer from the district of the Pehowa parganah in 1889 than to any real decrease in the prevalence of grievous infirmity. The tract transferred included a considerable number of most unhealthy villages, where disease is rife, especially in the severer forms producing impotence and cretinism, and the alteration in the limits of the district has therefore affected the figures under consideration. The following description is unfortunately still only too true of the corresponding tract in the neighbourhood of Manimájra in the Kharar tahsíl, though the quotation is from Mr. Melvill's Settlement Report written as far back as 1855 :—

	Males.	Females.
Insane ...	5	3
Blind ...	46	53
Deaf and dumb	13	8
Leprous ...	5	1

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Infirmities.

"These villages are frightfully under-populated. There are but few wells, and the Ghaggar water is drunk. Fever is extensively prevalent, as is proved by the distended spleen of almost every third man. Ask a man to run a few hundred yards alongside of your horse, and he is immediately stopped by a coughing fit; whereas a Jat, living out of the influence of irrigation, will run a couple of miles with the greatest ease. Goitre (called *gillarh*) is very prevalent; and it is by no means uncommon to find four, five or six *cretins* (called *jaggar*) of deformed minds and bodies in a single village. Families die out in the fourth generation. There is not a man in the *chak* who can boast of a residence of more than three generations. * * * * In fact, it is only the prospect of obtaining immense outturns to their labour that induces men to settle here."

European and Eurasian population.

The figures given in the margin show the number of the Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned their birth-place or their language as European. They are taken from Tables No. VI., X. and XI. of the Census Report for 1891. The number of troops stationed in the district is given in Chapter V, and the distribution of Christians by tahsíls is shown in Table No. VII.

	Details.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
Religion.	Christian (no detail of sects available).	4,365	839	5,204
Language.	English	4,091	637	4,728
	Other European languages	3	4	7
	Total European languages	4,094	641	4,735
Birth-place.	British Isles	3,608	210	3,818
	Other European countries	9	10	19
	Total European countries	3,617	220	3,837
	America	13	8	21
	Australia	1	3	4
	At sea	9	3	12

The Deputy Commissioner writes in the Census Report of the district that the Christian population of Kharar, where there are resident missionaries, is in a fairly flourishing state. There are small communities of Native Christians also at Jagádhri and at Morinda in tahsíl Rúpar. The total number returned as Native Christians in the district in 1891 is 367, and as Eurasians 262.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Villages.

The villages are generally compactly built, on ground a little raised, with one or two principal lanes, about eight or ten feet wide, running through them; from these lanes other blind paths branch off to the different *havelis* or houses. In the Khádir, between the Jamna and the canal, the houses are generally on high ground, to avoid inundations. To the west of the canal they are built on the high (*dhang*) precipitous bank of the old Jamna; by this plan the people are near the water, and generally conveniently situated for their Bángar, as well as their Khádir lands. The houses are generally smeared with mud, once a year after the rains, which gives them a tidy appearance. Thatched houses (*chappars*) are cheaper than

kothás, but they are colder in the winter, and generally inhabited by the lower castes, Gújars, Chúrahs, Chamárs, &c., &c. It is considered a sign of an inferior village to have more *chappars* than *kothás*. The Rájpúts, both Hindús and Mussalmáns, the Jats, Kambohs and Brahmans, are all comfortable about their houses.

Chapter III, B.

Statistical.

Villages.

Houses and domestic life.

In the Khádir tracts, and generally near the hills, the villages are for the greater part composed of thatched huts, their walls, made from the sandy soil, not being able to bear the weight of a heavy roof. In many parts the cottage roofs are overgrown with gourds, whose large green leaves and bright flowers of white or yellow present a very picturesque appearance. In the Morni hill tract the people are often comfortably housed in substantial cottages with good stone walls. In the remainder of the district, the walls of the houses (*kothás*) are of mud, or clods of dry earth, taken out of the tanks when they are dried up, or from the dried up and cracked rice fields. The roof of the *kotha* is also of mud; the beams which support it, and which are principally made of *sál* wood, rest partly on the mud walls and partly on upright beams about six feet high. Across these lie smaller beams, and over these grass; lastly upon the grass about three inches of earth is laid. Some of the houses possess a chimney, or rather a hole in the roof, to let the smoke escape. It is always made in the middle of the room and covered up with an earthen pot when it rains. Every house has its *kathu*, a large chest made of earth, and more or less ornamented according to the taste of the owner, about five feet square outside and four inside, with a door in the middle opening on hinges. In this are placed grain and the cooking utensils. The rest of the furniture consists of a *tand* or shelf, in a corner; a cupboard, also in a corner, or let into the wall; a *manjha* or *chárpái*, a bed for sitting and sleeping on; this, however, is only used in the warm weather, and then out in the open air—in the cold weather, they make a bed on the ground of sugar-cane leaves and straw, for the sake of warmth—; two or three earthen vessels (*gharras*) for water; a *charkha* or spindle for the women; a hand-mill (*chakki*) for grinding grain, which also falls to the lot of the female members of the family; a *batta* or round stone pestle with which they bruise and pound the spices; the *sil*, a flat stone, which they use as a mortar; *kathra*, a wooden bowl-like dish, used as a kneading trough; *baili* a small brass drinking pot; *katora*, one of a larger size; *lúnda* or *kharcha*, a large iron pot, used for cooking; *chhínka*, a swing table, hanging from the roof; and *chhalní*, a sieve for flour. The doors are fastened from the outside, with an iron chain and lock at the bottom, and inside by a chain over a stake. No light is procurable but through the door, the women sitting outside to spin. Spinning, grinding corn, cooking, and nursing are the chief occupations of the women, except of the Játnís and of the low-caste women, both of whom work in the fields.

Chapter III, B.

Social and Religious Life.

Dress.

The dress of the men consists of a turban, twisted round a skull cap; a *dhoti*, or cloth fastened round the waist, and drawn up between the legs; shoes; and, in the cold weather, a sheet, or counterpane stuffed with cotton. Only a few of the better dressed men wear the *chapkan* (jacket) or *mirzai* (coat), so common in the province. The fact is that only a few of the zamíndárs have hitherto been sufficiently well off to afford these luxuries. Those who can afford it wear a thin cotton jacket in the hot weather and rains, and one of dyed cotton stuffed, or padded, in the cold weather.

Food of the people.

The following note regarding the food of the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879:—

"The staple food of the people of the Ambála district at rabi is principally wheat and gram. Though in less quantities than wheat, *dál* is also largely consumed. At kharíf the principal food is *makki*, *jowár*, *bájra*, and *china*; *dál* is also eaten with these. The rabi grains above mentioned are sown from the 15th September to 15th November, wheat being sown last of all. The rabi harvesting begins from 1st April, and ranges generally up to the 10th April. The kharíf grain crops cultivation depends upon rain falling; if rain has fallen, they, *i. e.*, the crops, would be sown by the 15th June, and later, according as the rain may happen to fall. The kharíf harvesting commences from the 1st September (when *china* is generally ripe), and goes on till about the end of October.

"It is essential for the well-being of future rabi crops that rain should fall in September, or in the latter portion of Bhádon and beginning of Asauj; in short, copious rain throughout August, although beneficial enough for the standing kharíf crops, will not suffice for a good and ample rabi, unless some rain also fall in September; rain again is most essential during the month of December, and again in February; rain during these months will generally secure a copious crop. Rain is not desirable for a month or so after sowing. For the kharíf it is most essential that rain should, if possible, fall by the 15th June or about the 1st Asárh, and it will be all the better if there be rain more or less once a week until the end of September. If the month of Asárh pass entirely without any rain, there will be no cotton crop and other staples will be limited. Rain is very desirable and beneficial when the grain is just coming into ear, and for want of it then the grain will be short in quantity."

The following is an estimate of the food grains consumed in a year by an average agriculturist's family of five persons:—

Description of Grain.

	Sérs.	Chts.		M. S. Ch.
Rabi—				
Wheat	2	4	5 sérs per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	=22 32 8
Gram	2	4		
Dál	0	8		
Kharíf—				
Makki	1	8	5 sérs per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	=22 32 8
Jowár	1	8		
Bájra	1	8		
China	1	8		
Dál	0	8		
Total				45 25 0

The following is an estimate for non-agricultural classes:—

	Sérs.	Chts.		M. S. Ch.
Rabi—				
Wheat	1	12	4 sérs per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	=18 10 0.
Gram	1	12		
Dál	0	8		

Food of the people.

Kharíf—

Makki ...	... 1 8	4 sérs per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	18 10 0
Jowár ...	... 1 8		
Bájra ...	... 0 8		
Dál ...	... 0 8		
		Total maunds ...	36 20 0

The following is an estimate for city residents:—

Description of Grain.

	Sérs.	Chts.	S. Ch.	M. S. Ch.
Rabi—				
Wheat ...	... 2	4	3 12 per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	=17-4-6
Gram ...	... 1	0		
Dál ...	... 0	8		
Kharíf—				
Wheat ...	... 2	4	3 12 per diem for 6 months, or 182½ days.	=17-4-6
Makki ...	... 1	0		
Dál ...	... 0	8		
			Total maunds ...	34 8 12

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Table No. VII. shows the numbers in each tahsíl and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the Census of 1891, and Table No. XLIII. gives similar figures for towns. Tables III, IIIA. and IIIB. of the report of that Census give further details on the subject. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown in the margin. A full description of the great religions of the Punjab, and of their principal sects, will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report for 1881. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any disquisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by tahsíls can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available.

Religions.	Rural population.	Urban population.	Total population.
Hindu ...	6,271	5,044	6,105
Sikh ...	997	328	906
Jain ...	8	153	27
Mussalmán	2,731	4,064	2,911
Christian	3	356	50

Religious sects and institutions.

A complete account of the religious sects and of their various ceremonial observances on the occasion of births, deaths or marriages, and of other occurrences connected with the daily life of the people, has been given in the Karnál and Ludhiána volumes of the Provincial Gazetteer. It is unnecessary to repeat here the substance of what has been elsewhere discussed in great detail and in a most interesting form, and the reader who requires further information on these subjects may be referred to the volumes specified. There is little requiring special notice under this head in Ambála. Among the Hindús, the followers of Vishnu and of Siva are fairly evenly balanced. Vishnu is worshipped under several of his incarnations, that of

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Religious sects and institutions.

Krishna being the most common. The principal days of worship at the *thákardwáras* or temples of Vishnu are the 8th of Bhádon, 9th of Jeth, and 14th of Baisákh. The *shiwálas* or temples of Mahádeo are especially attended on the 14th of Phágan. Devi is principally worshipped as Sítala or small-pox, a visit to her shrines being supposed to act as a safeguard against that disease. The temples and bathing places on the banks of the Sarusti have already been alluded to. Among the minor deities, Hanúmán is extensively worshipped in connection with Vishnu. The Muhammadan saints, Gúgá Pír and Sarwar Sultán, are largely reverenced as well by Hindús as by Mussalmáns. At almost every shrine or mosque throughout the district, some sort of institution exists for the benefit of travellers, supported, some by funds left by the founders or contributed by their descendants, and some by small grants of revenue-free land assigned for the purpose by Government or the village. The principal institution of the latter class is the *thákardwára* of Daya Rám in Ambála city. At Jagádhri an establishment is supported by a native banker, from which a dole of half a sér of flour is daily given to any traveller or pauper who may care to apply for it. Another native banker of the same town has built and endowed a commodious rest-house for indigent travellers. At Thánesar and Pehowa, establishments for the relief of travellers are maintained, the former by the Mahárája of Patiála, at a cost of Rs. 7 per day, the latter jointly by the Mahárája of Patiála and the Rájá of Nábha. There are small colonies of Sikh dissenters (Kúkas) near Ambála city, and in the neighbourhood of Chuni in the Kharar tahsíl. They are quiet, orderly men and have given no trouble since the great Kùka rising of 1872.

Fairs and religious gatherings.

The places of pilgrimage in the district are very numerous. The sanctity of the Sarusti and the Kurukshetra has been already noted The principal religious gatherings at Thánesar take place on occasions of eclipses of the sun. Pilgrims attend from all parts of India (see Chap. VI, heading "Thánesar"). At Pehowa the sacred month is that of Chait (March-April), during which a large concourse of people, including pilgrims from a distance, is collected. Along the Sarusti, the whole year round, there is a constant succession of festivals at one shrine or another. The other religious fairs attended by persons from a distance are at Rúpar on the banks of the Sutlej, where on April 11th large crowds, amounting to as many as 50,000 persons, are collected to reverence the river, at the spot where it issues from the hills; and at the shrine of Mansa Devi near Manimájra, where 80,000 persons are collected in the month of Chait (March-April) and nearly as many in the month of Asauj (September-October), to worship the goddess Devi as the patron saint of thieves. Pilgrims attend this shrine from great distances. The attendance at these fairs has much fallen off of late years owing to the dislike of the people to the sanitary regulations rendered necessary by outbreaks of cholera at Thánesar and Mani Májra, in 1861 and 1857, respectively. In quite recent years it has been necessary to break up or alto-

Fairs and religious gatherings.

gether prohibit some of the large gatherings at Thánesar for fear of the spread of cholera. The opening of railway communication with Thánesar in 1891 has however done much to facilitate the movements of pilgrims to that most holy spot at all seasons of the year, and it is now in a fair way to recover the popularity to which it is entitled by its sanctity, to the no small advantage of the resident Brahmans who subsist on the offerings of the faithful.

There is a peculiar appropriateness in the existence of the famous Mansa Devi shrine at Manimájra within the confines of Ambála, as cattle theft is an exceedingly common offence throughout the wild jungle country in the south of the district, and in not a few Gujar and Rájpút villages of tahsíls Ambála and Naráingarh.

Language.

Table No. VIII. shows the numbers who speak each of the principal languages current in the district separately for each tahsíl and for the whole district. More detailed information will be found in Table No. IX. of the Census Report for 1881 and Table No. X. of the Report for 1891, while in Chapter V of the Report for 1881 the several languages are briefly discussed. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000 of the population by language, omitting small figures. The language spoken is Punjábi in tahsíls Kharar and Rúpar and a rough Hindi patois in the rest of the district.

Language.	Proportion per 10,000 of population.
Hindustáni-Hindi ...	6,617
Pahári	59
Punjábi	3,262
All Indian languages	9,954
Non-Indian "	46

Education.

Table No. XIII. gives statistics of education as ascertained at the Census of 1891 for each religion, and for the total population of each tahsíl. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the Census returns. Statistics regarding the attendance at Government and aided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII. Several new schools for girls have been opened recently, and efforts have been made to encourage the headmen and leading agriculturists in the villages to acquire such rudimentary education as will enable them at any rate to understand their transactions with the village money-lender. Among natives of the district the most generally educated class are the Jains, who are usually engaged in trade.

	Males.	Females.
Learning	111	5
Literate	628	20
Illiterate	9,261	9,975

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The distribution of the scholars at these schools by religion and the occupations of their fathers, as it stood in 1882-83, is shown in the margin. The following very interesting account of the indigenous schools of the district, as he found them in 1853, is taken from Mr. Wynyard's Settlement Report :—

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians ...	...	...
Native Christians	17	...
Hindus	3,094	17
Mussalmáns	1,828	42
Sikhs	397	1
Others	4	...
Children of agriculturists ...	2,960	37
" of non-agriculturists	3,180	23

" Educational institutions are of six kinds :—

1.—*Maktabs*, where Persian is taught ;
2.—*Chatsáls* (from " Chatta " a schoolboy), where Hindi is taught ;
3.—*Páthsálas* (from " Páth," reading), where Nágri or Shástri is taught ;
4.—*Maktabs*, where Arabic is taught ;
5.—Schools in which Gurmúkhi ; and
6.—Schools in which English are taught.

" I give below a tabular statement showing the number of institutions of each kind, in each district, with the allowances in land, grain, or money paid to the tutors :—

STATEMENT OF INDIGENOUS EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE ZILLAHS OF THANESAR AND AMBALA, EXISTING IN 1853.

Zillah Thánesar.

Kind of Institution.	No. of Schools.	No. of Teachers.	Allowance from Government. Land.		Grain.	Money.	From Individuals. Land.		Grain.	Money.	Estimated annual pay of teachers.
			B.	Bis.	M. S.	Rs.	B.	Bis.	M. S.	Rs.	Rs.
Persian ...	29	29	...		...	...	...		21 30	1,438	1,449
Hindi ...	19	19	1	5	...	...	...		3 0	486	489
Sanskrit ...	4	4	1	7	...	60	...		...	13	73
Arabic ...	12	12	6	10	...	...	14	10	...	67	67
Gurmukhi ...	1	...	...		...	...	...		...	2	2

Zillah Ambála.

Kind of Institution.	No. of Schools.	No. of Teachers.	Govt. Land B.	Bis.	Govt. Grain M. S.	Govt. Money Rs.	Indiv. Land B.	Bis.	Indiv. Grain M. S.	Indiv. Money Rs.	Estimated annual pay Rs.
Persian ...	59	59	12	18	...	...	6	15	1,542 4	1,991	2,762
Hindi ...	21	21	...		...	...	26	5	57 16	442	474
Sanskrit ...	9	9	...		...	180	...		...	...	180
Arabic ...	14	1	...		...	...	17	0	202 10	42	143
Gurmukhi ...	13	14	...		...	...	...		34 0	6	23
English ...	...	...	...		...	...	...		...	960	690

" *Persian schools* are not much in vogue ; they are only found in the *qasbáhs*, or large villages. They are generally set up in his own house by some individual who wants to teach his children, and employs a teacher on two or three rupees a month ; others, who wish to have their sons educated too, send their boys, and give the teacher from two to eight annas a month, according to their means. The income of the teacher is thus made up to Rs. 8 or Rs. 10 a month. Boys come to school at from 5 to 6, some as late as 10 ; they read for eight or nine years, some as long as 12 or 13. Many then get paying employment of some kind, and discard their books. The parents are too lenient, and do not insist upon the attention of the children ; some cannot pay the teacher, and the boys are withdrawn. The teachers are men of unfinished education. They are not examined previous to their appointment, and are many of them ignorant of every-

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thing but how to read and write. The teacher reads out the lesson, which the children repeat after him; some few repeat from memory. They have a repetition day once a week, generally Thursday, in the forenoon. In the afternoon of that day they learn poetry, and in the evening cap verses. In some schools one of the boys is employed as an assistant to the master, and hears, every day, the repetition of the previous day's lesson. The course of reading is very low; works on ethics and morals are not read. They are taught to read and write in all the schools, and in some they are taught to cypher. The first attempts at writing are upon a chalked board, with a pen made from the *sarpat* grass. Then they come to paper doubled twice; a finished penman writes on a thin piece of paper, only supported by his hands. Absence is punished by admonition, pulling the ears, and caning. If a boy does not come, another is always sent to bring him; every boy is numbered when he comes into school, and when they are dismissed are sent away in the order they came, the first with one pat on the hand, the second with two, and so on. The last boy who comes into school, and who is called a *phadi*, gets the most pats, and these a trifle harder than the rest. Inattention and stupidity are punished as above, and by refusal of the indulgence of holidays. Boys are expelled for theft and any other serious misconduct. Tutors are respected and looked up to, and the appointment is one much sought after. Fridays are holidays, as are the *Akhiri Chár Shamba*, the last Wednesday of the month *Rajab*, and other feast days and (*teohárs*) festivals. On the occasion of their festivals, the children give small presents of three or four pice to their tutors, calling it *Idi*. Nothing of artizanship is taught by any respectable schoolmaster.

"The *chatsáls*, or Hindi schools, are generally held at the house of the *pádha* teacher, if not at the *chaupál*, or other public place. These schools are principally attended by Baniás, and the attention of the pupils is confined to accounts. The first thing taught is the *pahára*, multiplication table. Each table is called a *kotha*, from its similarity to their roof. The master receives one anna from the pupil, for each table he learns, up to 10 times. These tables do not stop at 12, as ours do, but they go on to 100 times. After the first ten tables have been mastered, the master gets paid four annas for every additional ten tables taught. Boys generally learn up to forty or fifty times of each table; a few, however, learn up to one hundred. When the multiplication table is learnt, which it generally is in four or five months, the masters get one rupee four annas in advance, and in the month of Bhádon, they visit each house, and are paid four annas in coin, and get cloth worth eight annas from each house. This visiting is called *chauk chakara*. They also receive 1¼ sérs of grain from each pupil, on Sunday, which day is a holiday. The rudiments of writing are taught on the ground; letters are formed in the dust with a blunted reed; when the pupils have learnt how to form the letters, a board is given to them, and the tutors then receive a present of from one rupee to one rupee four annas. When they have completed their education in writing, a present of one or two rupees, or a cow, or clothes, are given. Children go at five or six years of age. There is no previous examination. They take about two and-a-half years to finish the course. The teacher says the lesson, and the boys repeat after him. Sometimes the cleverest boy says the lesson, and the others repeat after him. This is called *mahráni*. The first thing they are taught is to praise God, which they do by repeating and writing the words "*Onamassi dhan*," a corruption of the three words, "*Auj nama Sidhún*," which mean "Obeisance to God and the Saints." Punishments are of the same description as in the Persian schools. Boys are expelled in the same way, and for the same reasons; and the tutors are respected and looked up to.

"*Pathsala, Sanskrit schools.*—Boys generally come to these at six or seven years of age, and read 10 years; some less than this; sometimes a *Pandit* teaches young Brahmins of from 15 to 20 years of age. These latter live by begging in the villages, and give the teacher the benefit of their services. These learners are called *Biddhyáratís*. They have many holidays, about eight a month—on the days of change of the moon. *Chaudas* is repetition day. Nothing but Sanskrit is taught.

"*Maktabs for learning Arabic.*—Zamíndárs who wish that their children should have a finished education send them to the *Muazzins* at the mosque. These men generally know some portion of the Qurán by heart. They teach the youth what they know, though very often neither of them understands the meaning of it. The person who recollects the whole Qurán is entitled to the distinguishing name of *Háfiz*; but it is very often given to those who recollect very little. The instruction is not confined to boys; grown men sometimes come to learn it, and little girls. The teachers are paid by cooked food, grain, or clothes. Repetition is generally on Thursdays; sometimes on Mondays and Thursdays. Fridays and other feast days are holidays. Punishments, &c., as above.

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Education.

"There are only two places where Gurmúkhi is taught. The learners give according to their ability. Their education is completed in two or three years."

The Deputy Commissioner writes that physical education has been attended to lately in the district schools, with the result that the Ambála boys in 1892 beat all other districts of the Division in the annual athletic sports competition held at Delhi, and at Lahore stood first and second for gymnastics for the whole Punjab.

Tables Nos. XL, XLI., XLII. give statistics of crime; while table No. XXXV. shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants.

Poverty or wealth of the people.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of the commercial and industrial classes. Table No. XXXIV. gives statistics of the amount collected as income-tax in recent years, but the numbers affected by these taxes are small. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case, the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather-workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed below in Section D.

SECTION C.—TRIBES AND CASTES.

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes.

Table No. IX. gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex, while Table No. IXA. shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of them are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Ambála are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as landowners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed below; and each caste will be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881.

Land-holding castes.

The total population of the district by the Census of 1891 is 1,033,427. The detail for the principal land-owning castes is as follows:—

Jats	154,394
Rájpúts	87,768
Gujars	49,125
Sainís	28,024
Málís	36,008
Ráins	33,037
Kambohs	13,076
Rors	2,093

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Land-holding castes.

In all these land-holding castes cover about two-fifths of the total population. Brahmans, Baniás and the village labouring or menial castes cover roughly another two-fifths, and the remaining fifth is made up of the residents in towns or cantonments. A peculiar feature of Ambála is the large number of Sainís or Málís dotted about in small settlements in all parts of the district. Occasionally these industrious market garden cultivators own whole villages, but more often they are confined to small communities of occupancy tenants established in villages owned by the Rájpúts and a few Sayads, who are but moderately endowed with the capacity for turning land to good account. There is no real difference between Sainís and Málís, the former being the name used in the country lying west of the Ghaggar stream, and the latter in the east and south of the district. The caste is not a common one in Punjab districts. It holds a somewhat similar position in the Hoshiárpur, Jullundur and Gurdáspur districts, but is nowhere represented so numerously as in Ambála. The origin of these Sainí or Máli settlements may be traced in the recent history of the district. The whole country was overrun by Sikhs from the Mánjha in or about 1763, and held by them more or less independently till 1847. Each petty ruler of a few villages collected his revenue in kind and where the land was already in the hands of inferior cultivators he did what he could to develope it by introducing or encouraging the establishment of small colonies of Saini and Máli settlers, who have continued to hold their own and are now secure in the possession of occupancy rights.

The Jats.

The Jats of the district cover two widely different classes. In the two northern tahsíls of Kharar and Rúpar they are a fine set of men of the type common in neighbouring Punjab districts. All over the east and south they are of poorer physique and not nearly so strongly marked with the persistent energy and fertility in resource which are the usual characteristics of the race. Good cultivators they are even there, but even as cultivators there is less than usual to distinguish Jat villages from the rest, and in other respects they have generally sunk to the rather low level of prosperity in the country. The tribe is split up into *gôts* innumerable. The following figures show the more important subdivisions of the caste represented in the district according to the 1891 returns. It is comparatively rare in Ambála to find a cluster of villages owned by Jats of one *gôt*, or even a single village in which one *gôt* largely predominates, but as exceptions the strong Baidwán communities of tahsíl Kharar may be mentioned, holding among others the large and flourishing villages of Sohána, Kúmra and Máuli; the Chábal villages of tahsíl Ambála; the Báchhals of Naráingarh; and the Hír, Kang and Sindhu villages of Rúpar. Unfortunately the 1891 Census figures have not taken separate account of the Baidwán *gôt*, though by far the most important Jat *gôt* in the district. The tribe is approximately 4,000 strong in tahsíl

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Tribes and Castes.
The Jats.

Kharar and 6,000 in the whole district. They are a somewhat turbulent set of men, but strong and prosperous cultivators and unlike the ordinary zamíndárs of Ambála they readily enter Government service in the army and police.

Subdivisions of Jats.

Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.
Bains	2,872	Gil	2,959	Mán	2,443
Cháhal	2,615	Hír	2,495	Pawánia ...	1,312
Dhillon	2,236	Kang	514	Sindhu ...	7,437
Dhíndsa... ...	961				

The Rájpúts.

Of the Rájpúts by far the most important tribe in the district is the Chauhán, numbering 39,208. The head-quarters of the tribe are in tahsíl Naráingarh, the Hindús at Ráipur and the Muhammadans at Panjlassa, and the heads of the leading families are generally recognised with the title of Ráo. In former days these Ráos were men of considerable position in the country, and they are still nominally large landholders, but in nearly every case their estates are hopelessly burdened with debt from bad management and extravagance, and for all practical purposes the family land has passed into the hands of money-lenders or speculators. The Hindu Ráo family at Ráipur still ranks among the leading families of the district and holds a *jágír* of Rs. 4,000 a year. The Muhammadan Ráo families at Panjlassa, Dera, Hamídpur and Laha (all in tahsíl Naráingarh) no longer hold the status of jágírdár, and though it is impossible not to feel some sympathy for these representatives of former power, they are now mainly distinguished for an immense sense of their own importance and a capacity for mismanaging their affairs, which unfortunately set the fashion among the Rájpúts of the tahsíl. The Chauhán villages are now very numerous in Naráingarh and the eastern half of Ambála tahsíl, and the tribe is strongly represented in Jagádhri and Pípli also. They claim descent from Ràna Har Rái, who established himself in this part of the country from 450 to 500 years ago. Of the remaining Rájpút *gôts* the most important are the Taons of Rúpar and Kharar, a few Ghorewáha villages in the same two tahsíls, a small but strong cluster of Ragbansi villages in Kharar and Naráingarh, and the Túnwárs of Jagádhri and Pípli. The following are the Census figures (1891) for the principal Rájpút *gôts* of the district :—

Subdivisions of Rájpúts.

Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.
Chauhán ...	39,208	Pundir ...	2,284	Táon ...	8,289
Ghorewáha ...	3,348	Ragbansi ...	2,979	Túnwar ...	8,830
Mandahár ...	2,005				

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Sainís and Málís colonisation in Pípli.

The Saini and Máli settlements are scattered widely through all tahsíls of the district. In Rúpar these excellent cultivators hold many villages as proprietors, principally in the Sutlej riverain tract, and especially in that portion of it lying just north of Rúpar town. Elsewhere they hold comparatively few villages as proprietors, but are strongly represented as occupancy tenants, especially in tahsíls Kharar and Naráingarh. An interesting question affecting the prosperity of the district is the way in which these men have in recent years met the pressure of existence on small holdings by a stream of emigration to unoccupied portions of tahsíl Pípli. Capital is raised by the sale of shares in petty occupancy holdings of highly cultivated and very valuable market garden land in the north of the district, and the money so raised is expended in the purchase of land and establishment of new villages in the Chachra jungles of Pípli. The results so far have been hopeful, and with some encouragement these Máli cultivators are able to make farming in the Chachra pay in a way which is almost impossible for the older residents of the tract. The first large purchase was made in 1869 when the Málís bought about 2,000 acres in Bír Babain from a member of the Kunjpura family. This estate, which was mostly waste when bought, is now the best village in the Northern Chachra. The next purchase was in 1873, and since then scarcely a year has passed in which Málís have not made large investments in land belonging to brokendown zamíndárs or to non-resident proprietors, money-lenders and others, who would never have extended cultivation. The number of purchases from the latter class is very satisfactory. Altogether since 1869 about 8,500 acres have been bought, and the prices entered in the deeds of sale aggregate Rs. 1,18,000. A division on ploughs of the land purchased is speedily effected, and the waste rapidly disappears. The first purchases were in the northern, but the movement has now extended to the southern, Chachra, and even to the Indri Nardak, where Málís from Kharar have recently bought a small estate from non-resident landlords. Quite recently Málís of the same tahsíl and of Naráingarh purchased the whole of Devidáspur from a Bania of the Ambála tahsíl and half of Ratgal from non-resident Shekhs of Kunjpura. Both these estates are near Thánesar. The prices paid are sometimes extraordinarily high. Thus in the case of Devidáspur an area of 389 acres was purchased for Rs. 20,000. It was all waste; but the land is good, and there are some old wells which can again be put in order.

The Gujars.

The Gujars principally occupy a number of villages, mostly of small size, in the wild, broken tract lying immediately underneath the low hills in tahsíls Rúpar, Kharar, Naráingarh and Jagádhri. They are a hardy, industrious race of men, and fair cultivators, eking out a somewhat poor livelihood with the proceeds of their cattle, sheep and goats where they can get sufficient grazing-ground in the hill areas. The life in these wild tracts is hard, but in spite of special difficulties arising from

Chapter III. C. — Tribes and Castes. The Gujars.

bad or insufficient water-supply, damage to crops from wild beasts, loss of cattle by accidents in the hills, and epidemics among the flocks of goats, the Gujars manage to hold their own and are not unprosperous on the whole. They are commonly branded as cattle thieves, but the reputation is not altogether deserved in the regular Gujar tract lying under the hills, except perhaps in a few villages of parganah Kotáha in Naráingarh. At the worst the Gujars are not given to cattle-stealing to anything like the same extent as the Rájpút (Ranghar) villages of the south of the district.

The Raiens, Kambohs and Rors.

Of the Ráiens, Kambohs and Rors there is little to be said except that they are all excellent cultivators. There are strong Ráien villages in Rúpar, Ambála, Naráingarh and Jagádhri, and numerous smaller settlements of the tribe in the position of occupancy tenants in all parts of the district. The Kambohs are chiefly confined to Jagádhri and Pípli, and the Rors are found in Pípli alone.

Other land-holding tribes.

Of other less important land-owning castes, it is sufficient to notice briefly the Patháns of Kotla Nihang in Rúpar and Khizrábad in Jagádhri, the Brahman villages of Ambála and Naráingarh, and the Shekh, Sayad and Kalál villages, of which a few are to be found in most tahsíls. The Brahmans and some of the Kalals cultivate their lands themselves and are moderately prosperous. The Patháns, Shekhs and Sayads depend largely on their tenants, and have usually a hard struggle between pride and poverty. The Pathán family of Kotla Nihang is mentioned further in Section E. The Patháns of Khizrábad are descended from one Anwar Khán, who entered India in the train of Nádir Khán, and held a strong position in the neighbourhood until they were in their turn ousted from the greater part of their possessions by the Cis-Sutlej Sikhs.

The Morni cultivators.

The cultivators in the Morni hills are chiefly Gujars, Kanets and Brahmans in the lower hills, and Kanets, Kolís and Brahmans in the upper ranges of the tract. The Kanets and Kolís are essentially residents of the hills, the former claiming an impure Rájpút origin, while the latter are menials and artisans rather than members of an agricultural caste. The Gujars differ little from their brethren in the plains, but the whole Morni population are a simple, orderly class mixing as little as possible with the residents of the plains, and seldom coming into contact with the authorities of the district.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV. shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure, according to the classification now adopted in the Revenue Report. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures; the primary division of rights between

the main subdivisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these subdivisions follows another form, which itself often varies from one subdivision to another.

Village tenures.

In Ambála a comparatively large number of villages are shown as zamíndári. These principally represent the separate estates owned by the larger jágírdárs of the district. Of zamíndári villages as the term is generally understood there are not many. The most important are some Rájpút villages in Naráingarh, and the large village of Ratangarh in Rúpar. In the vast majority of cases the proprietary holdings average from 5 to 10 or 12 acres only in size, and a man's tenure and revenue payments are determined solely with reference to the area of land actually recorded in his name. This is commonly the case even where the village lands are primarily divided into pattis. The patti distribution may be a natural division, where the village is shared by two or more distinct groups of proprietors, but more often it is an artificial arrangement adopted as an easy means of dividing up the village land so as to give each family a fair share of the good and bad soil.

Village officers; Zails.

There are nearly 5,000 village headmen in the district. They succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner, as in other districts, and their duties are the same as elsewhere in the Province. They are more numerous in proportion to the amount of land revenue they represent than in most other districts. It is by no means uncommon to find as many as ten or twelve headmen in the larger villages, and though their number much reduces both their influence and the amount of their yearly stipend, yet any attempt to reduce the number is strongly opposed. It has been decided not to appoint chief headmen in the district. In 1882 it was proposed to appoint zaildárs in the course of the revised settlement then being undertaken, but eventually in 1890 it was decided that a zaildári system should not be introduced according to the model adopted in most districts of the Punjab. Zaildári circles were framed, the total number of zails being for the present fixed at 85, distributed as follows:—

Tahsíl	Ambála	14
"	Kharar	16
"	Rúpar	13
"	Naráingarh	13
"	Jagádhri	15
"	Pípli	14

The Morni iláka of Naráingarh was specially excluded from the zaildári circles, and the arrangements made at settlement also contemplated exclusion of the towns of Rúpar, Thánesar and Shahabad. But though these circles were adopted as convenient units for administrative purposes, it was considered inadvisable to require the revenue assignees of the district to make the ordinary zaildári contribution at the rate of one per

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Zaildári inám system.

cent. The orders exempting assignees in Ambála from zaildári contribution make it clear that the law enables Government to compel all jágírdárs and máfidárs to contribute, but states that it has been resolved to allow exemption to them "for the present and during the pleasure of Government."

This exemption of assigned revenue from contribution rendered it necessary to abandon the plan of establishing zaildárs throughout the district upon the ordinary lines. The funds available did not admit of a zaildár agency upon a suitable scale, and Government directed that zaildárs should not be appointed, but that in their place inámdárs should be introduced in accordance with the following instructions :—

(1). The 85 circles into which the district has been divided in view of the introduction of a zaildári agency should be maintained. The boundaries of these circles may, where necessary, be gradually revised in accordance with the rules under the Land Revenue Act, in order to make them more compact or for other reasons.

(2). For each circle a rural notable may be appointed who should be called an inámdár not a zaildár. The rules regulating the appointment of these men will be Rules 28 and 29 of those contained in Chapter II, Part II, of the Rules under the Land Revenue Act. The emoluments of each inámdár will consist of an inám assignable from the revenue or commutation money of some village or villages in his circle.

(3). In addition to these inámdárs of zails a limited number of other inámdárs may be appointed, provided that the gross expenditure upon all ináms does not exceed Rs. 8,500 per annum, this being as nearly as possible one per cent. upon the khálsa land revenue and commutation money. It is to be understood that the money for all these ináms is to be deducted from khálsa revenues.

(4). The scale of allowances to be given in the form of cash ináms is fixed as follows :—

15 first class	ináms at Rs.	120	a year.
45 second "	" " "	90	"
35 third "	" " "	60	"

subject to such modifications as the increase in the gross amount to be distributed in ináms may render possible. The inám attached to zails should always be of the first or second class. If a vacancy arise in a zail inám of the first class, the Commissioner may, if he think fit, reduce the inám to the second class, promoting one of the second class zail ináms to the first class instead. All ináms will be purely personal, and held for life subject to good conduct and efficiency. The duties of inámdárs will be the same as those of zaildárs, and jágírdárs will be eligible for appointment as inámdárs. Jágírdárs appointed to zail circles are permitted to draw the inám in addition to their jágír revenue.

Zaildári inám system.

These exceptional arrangements for the district were rendered necessary by the large amount and peculiar circumstances of the revenue assignments of Ambála, as described in Section E of this Chapter. The existing zaildári circles have been framed as far as possible on tribal considerations. A complete list of the circles is not required as the zaildári system is not fully in force.

Talukdári tenures.

The number of talukdári, or intermediate tenures in the district is unusually large. They are locally known by the name biswadári, and are of that kind where a fixed allowance is paid by proprietors in possession of land, in recognition of superior proprietary rights existing in others whose possession has fallen into abeyance. There are no less than 601 such holdings in the district, a larger number than is to be found anywhere in the Punjab, except in the division of Ráwalpindi and in the districts of Múltan and Hoshiárpur. The tendency of the Sikh system was to strengthen the hands of the actual cultivators of an estate. Their method of realizing their revenue at equal rates from all whom they found in possession, without regard to the nature of their tenures, tended to reduce, and to a great extent did reduce, to a dead level, almost all the distinctions between proprietor and non-proprietor. The cultivators, after paying the share of their produce demanded by their Sikh masters, had nothing left wherewith to pay rent, nor, if they had, was there any power to compel them to pay it. Thus many, who under Muhammadan rule had enjoyed the rights of lords of the soil, sank under the Sikhs into insignificance. If, in the period of their power, they had retained in actual possession a few acres of land for their own cultivation, these they continued to hold, paying revenue to the Sikhs on equal terms with other cultivators. But as to manorial rights over other land, they retained none but such as, from force of custom, the cultivators might choose of their own free will to render.

On the introduction of a British Settlement, these ousted landlords attempted to assert their long neglected claims. The officer who effected the settlement of the southern portion of the district was an advocate for their recognition, either by actually making the settlement with them as proprietors, or, where this was not possible, by assigning them an allowance under the denomination of biswadári. They generally, he says in his report, laid their claim both for the right to engage for the revenue, and for the right to collect the extra biswadári allowance. Such cases were mostly settled by arbitration; but no doubt the bias of the settlement officer contributed in a certain degree to enhance the number of those who obtained a recognition of antiquated rights. The officer who conducted the settlement of the northern tahsíls, on the other hand, was of opinion that in the majority of cases the superior rights of such original proprietors had fallen too completely into abeyance to admit of their recognition, and his policy was to maintain as proprietors all those who were found in proprietary possession, granting an extra biswadári allowance only in very exceptional

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Village communities and tenures.

Talukdári tenures.

cases.* The arrangements made at regular settlement have not since been modified. The biswadári allowance is usually a trifling sum, though valued by the superior owners as a recognition of their former status in the country. The amount is in some cases fixed at a small lump sum. More often it is calculated as a percentage of from two to five per cent. of the land revenue of the village. In either case it may be paid to a single superior proprietor, or (more generally) to the entire body of proprietors in the village entitled to superior ownership. It is not uncommon for one patti in a village to receive these petty dues from the other patti, especially where the village is divided between Rájpúts and inferior castes. There are many curious complications connected with the biswádári payments, as for instance in the large Rájpút Zamíndári village of Dera in Naráingarh, where the proprietors pay biswadári dues to men who actually cultivate under them as occupancy tenants.

The chahárami tenure.

Among the complications arising from the Sikh conquests in the district must be noticed a peculiar tenure, called the chahárami, or "¼ share." The tenure had its origin in a common custom of the Cis-Sutlej Sikhs, when struggling for possession of a particular tract, either among themselves or in opposition to the original owners, to come to a compromise, whereby half the revenue of each village in the tract was assigned to either party. The revenue representing theoretically half the gross produce, the shares thus apportioned amounted to a quarter of the gross produce. Both contending parties, in other words, became chahåramis,† or "holders of ¼;" the name, however, as a rule, was applied only to the assailed or weaker party. The word, thus coming into use, acquired in course of time a technical meaning, and was applied in some cases to partitions of revenue in which the proportions of ½ and ¼ were not maintained.

It will be seen that the chahárami tenures fall naturally into two classes: the first, where two sovereign powers contested the right to collect revenue; the second, where an invader strove to subject the original holders and compel them to pay him revenue. In the cases representing the first class, the two sovereign powers, instead of fighting out the quarrel, agreed to share the revenue of each village, and retained concurrent jurisdiction in the shared tract. The principal instance of this kind existed in the person of the Rája of Patiála, who, until 1849, held villages in Ambála shared with several minor chiefs. The chiefs of Kalsia and Nálagarh also held shares in land which came under British Administration in 1849. When the minor chiefs ceased to exercise independent jurisdiction, it was manifestly out of the question that the British Government, which took over their powers, should exercise concurrent jurisdiction with a native State, and it accordingly became necessary

* In the Delhi territory, the term *biswadári* is used in a different sense as synonymous with proprietary right, in distinction to the right of a mere cultivator.

† From the Persian chaháram-¼.

to effect a territorial division. This was effected at the time of settlement, and this class of shared tenure, therefore, as far as British territory is concerned, has altogether ceased to exist.

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The chahárami tenure.

The other class, however, of the tenure is still extant. A Sikh invader, finding himself not quite strong enough to reduce the cultivators of his newly-acquired territory to complete subjection, would come to a compromise with some of the most influential from among their number, and grant them half the revenue, *i.e.*, ¼ the gross produce, of a certain village or part of a village. They on their part agreed henceforth to aid the conqueror in collecting his revenue. They were, in fact, on a small-scale, jagírdárs, or alienees of the land-revenue. When the time of settlement arrived, great difficulty was experienced in dealing with these cases. The chiefs themselves became mere jágírdárs; and, while the Government determined to continue the allowances of the chahóramís, it was considered, at the same time, inexpedient to look upon them as sharers in the jágír. Some of the chahóramís were proprietors in actual cultivating possession, while others, on the other hand, belonged to the class already described, of talúkdárs. In both cases the chahárami allowance was completely separated from the *jágír*. If the chahárami were recorded proprietor, his revenue was reduced by ½; if, on the other hand, the Settlement Officer decreed him only the position of talúkdár, then the settlement was made at the usual rates with the proprietor, and the talúkdár was declared entitled to receive a rent charge equivalent to one-half of the revenue assessed, the remainder going to Government, or to its assignee the jágírdár, as the case might be.

The chahárami tenures of this latter class are confined to the Jagádhri and Pípli tahsíls. A Rájpút family belonging to Rámgarh in Jagádhri has a share in the Leda jágír, and the Patháns of Khizrabad still divide the revenues of eleven British and some Kalsia villages with the Sikhs, and have always been treated as ordinary jágírdárs. A statement of the Pípli chahár-amís is given below:—

The Pípli chahárамís.

Persons enjoying chahárami.	Share of revenue enjoyed.	Amount of chahárami.	Estates in which chahárami is enjoyed.
		Rs.	
Proprietors of Pattís Jhamra and Kankra of Shahabad.	50 per cent. ...	3,028	Patti Jhamra, Patti Kankra, Shahzádpur, Zainpur, Boripur, Patti Boripur, Dáomazra.
Rájpút proprietors of Lukhi.	Do.	1,022	Lukhi, Panwán, Hasanpur, Jhínwarheri, Píplimazra.
Afgháns proprietors of Bahádurpur.	Do.	190	Bahádurpur.
Proprietors of Pattís Malakpur and Shahábpur of Nalwi.	20 per cent. in Patti Shahábpur and 25 per cent. in Patti Malakpur.	228	Pattís Malakpur and Shahábpur of Nalwi.
Total ...	...	4,468	

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The Pípli chahárамsí.

In all the estates except Bahádurpur, which is entirely *jágír*, some of the shares of the Sikh jágírdárs have lapsed to Government. All the proprietors of Shahabad have not chahárami rights in all the seven villages shown in the last column of the table. Some have rights in one estate and some in another, while some have no share at all in the grant. In four of the seven estates the owners and the chahárami holders are one and the same, in two of the others the chahárami holders are superior proprietors, while in one they have no rights of ownership. The Lukhi chahárami-khwárs own the whole of three villages and a part of a fourth, but in the fifth they have no proprietary title. The two Afgháns, who enjoy the chahárami of Bahádurpur, also own that village, and the biswádárs of Pattís Malakpur and Shahábpur of Nalwi have chahárami rights in their own pattís. In some cases, *e. g.*, in the Lukhi villages, the chahárami is divided by shares without regard to the amount of land owned by each holder. In others, *e. g.*, in the two pattís of Shahabad, each man's holding is the measure of his right, and the grantee in paying in his land revenue simply takes a drawback of one-half as his own share. The recent orders of Government regarding these chahárami grants are quoted in Chapter IV of the Karnál Ambála Settlement Report. Briefly it has been decided to uphold the grants as long as in each village a part of the Sikh jágír remains unresumed, and to resume the whole of the chahárami grants at once whenever in any village the whole of the Sikh jágír has lapsed.

Riparian custom.

From the point where the Jamna leaves the hills to the border of the Karnál district, the boundary between the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces is the boundary of the villages of the Ambála and Sahâranpur districts (Government of India Notification No. 1501, dated 11th September 1884), and Ambála includes lands, and even some whole villages, on the far side of the deep stream.

On the Sutlej on the other hand the deep stream rule is still the nominal rule for the district boundary, though in practice the rule has not been adhered to. The Sutlej changes its course so frequently that constant transfers of villages would be required between the Hoshiárpur and Ambála districts if the published orders were acted up to; and the rule has now practically been allowed to fall into disuse for many years. There is some confusion as to the custom regulating village property on the river banks. The deep-stream rule is generally recorded as the custom in the village papers, but fixed boundaries have been observed by many villages by consent. The question has several times come before the courts, but the decisions given so far have not agreed, and no general rule of custom can be yet laid down. Where lands are carried away either by rivers or torrents, the loss is borne by individuals. In case of subsequent recovery from the river, these lands are usually entered as village common land; but in practice the original owners take possession without dispute. In some few villages it is

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Riparian custom.

the custom to recompense individual sharers for their losses from river action by grants from the village common land; and this is no doubt the most effectual means of preventing hardship to individuals; but unfortunately any such arrangement necessitates an ideal unanimity among the villagers, which seldom has its existence in actual fact. Rules have been drawn up for the district determining the revenue rates at which lands recovered from the rivers are to be assessed, and also the conditions under which revenue will be remitted in case of damage by flood or action of sand along the course of the principal hill streams.

Tenants and rents.

Table No. XVI. shows the number of tenancies of each kind and the area of land cultivated by proprietors and tenants in each tahsíl, while Table No. XXI. gives the prevailing rates of cash rent as stated in the Revenue returns for 1892. The figures in the former table are approximately accurate, but little real guide in the latter. The areas on which true cash rents are paid are small, and the cultivating holders, whether proprietors or occupancy tenants, usually keep the best lands in their own hands. Where competition cash rents prevail the rates vary largely according to the quality of the soil. From Rs. 20 to 50 an acre a year may be paid for rich market garden lands lying close to towns or large villages, where there are facilities for heavy manuring. These exceptional rents may, however, be left out of account. They are paid on very small plots and by cultivators of a special class, and do not represent the real letting value of land under normal conditions. Elsewhere cash rents are paid either in a lump sum for entire holdings, or at bigha rates of from eight annas to 1½ rupees per bigha equivalent to about Rs. 2-8-0 to 7-8-0 an acre on unirrigated land, and roughly at double these rates where irrigation is practicable. Grain rents run from a third or a fourth of the gross produce in poorer lands to one-half in the richer. Speaking generally one-half is the common rate in the prosperous and densely populated tahsíls Kharar and Rúpar, and two-fifths elsewhere. In the richer parts of the tahsíls mentioned it is not uncommon to find tenants paying the very high rent of one-half produce in grain with an addition in cash of half the Government demand for revenue and cesses.

Occupancy tenants.

The occupancy tenants of Ambála are an important class, holding about 72,500 acres or nearly 8 per cent. of the cultivated area, and including a number of small communities of industrious peasants of the Raien, Saini or Mali class located in large Rájpút villages, where they manage to make a living, in spite of very small holdings, on land which the proprietors themselves are unable to turn to good account. Where there are only a few occupancy tenants in a village they will generally be found to be of the same caste as the proprietors, and descendants of men who were associated with them by ties of blood or marriage, or else to belong to the menial and artisan classes. In the former case there is little real distinction between the proprietors and tenants. The tenants may and commonly do

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Occupancy tenants.

own land as proprietors in the same or neighbouring villages in addition to what they hold in tenant right. At the regular settlement of 1847-53 twelve years' previous uninterrupted possession was generally considered sufficient to establish a claim to occupancy right, and the rent for tenants of this class was usually fixed in terms of the revenue and cesses without addition for proprietary dues. Where the tenants belong to the mental or artisan classes the holding is ordinarily very small, representing a few bighas made over to them as an inducement to remain in the village. In such cases also the rent fixed at regular settlement included either no málikána or only a very trifling sum.

Growth of tenant right.

There remains the third and much the most important class where the tenants are men wholly different by caste, habits and position from the proprietary body, belonging usually to the industrious castes already referred to. They were commonly established in the village within the last century or so, and occupy lands from which the original proprietors were forcibly dispossessed by the Sikh Chiefs during the period of semi-independent jurisdiction. Throughout this period the Sikhs collected their revenue in kind, and one of their principal means of increasing the revenue was by encouraging families of more industrious cultivators to settle in the village. Originally few in numbers these small communities continued to grow and flourish at the expense of the proprietors, and as a rule they eagerly fastened on the rich homestead lands specially suited to their market garden style of cultivation. During the Sikh rule the tenants were tolerated by the proprietors without active resistance, and in most cases the proprietors were probably only too glad to be relieved of responsibility for cultivating, and to get a trifling recognition of their proprietary right in the shape of a sér or two in the maund from the produce. The situation changed altogether on the introduction of the regular settlement. The proprietors then did all they could to recover land from the tenants, and the latter in their turn all they could to be given the status of proprietors instead of occupancy tenants. In village after village the dispute was fought through the Courts with much bad feeling on both sides and the feeling still exists as keenly as ever. The decision at regular settlement was generally in favour of the proprietors as regards rights, but in consideration of the fact that the tenants had borne their full, or more than their full, share of responsibility for the high revenue levied by the Sikhs or taken by Government at the summary settlements, their rent was generally fixed in cash in terms of the revenue with an addition of not more than one or two annas in the rupee as málikána.

Tenancy legislation of 1868 and 1887.

The earlier tenancy legislation of 1868 did not immediately affect the tenants in Ambála as the rents fixed at last settlement remained in force till revision of assessment, but Act XVI of 1887 has again brought a great change in the position of affairs. Out of the total 72,500 acres then cultivated with occupancy right little

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Tenancy legislation of 1868 and 1887.

over 20,000 acres paid rents in kind. From 9,000 to 10,000 acres, mostly in the northern tahsíls, paid Government dues only, without málikána, and the remaining 43,000 acres paid cash rents with an addition of what was intended at regular settlement to be usually 6¼ to 12½ per cent., though subsequent changes and errors in village accounts had frequently made the málikána actually taken almost nominal. Comparatively few of this latter class could establish a right to privileged status under the terms of the Acts of 1868 or 1887, and they have therefore become liable to enhancement of rent up to 75 per cent. of the revenue in addition to Government dues. The rents were revised by the Settlement Officers in 1888 and 1889, and for the present the difficulty has been got over by allowing a rate of enhancement much below the maximum contemplated by the Act of 1887, giving málikána generally at two annas, four annas, or five annas four pie per rupee of revenue, representing 12½, 25 and 33 per cent., respectively. These rents remain in force for not less than ten years, and thereafter it will be again for decision whether further enhancement (if claimed by the proprietors) should be allowed in view of the previous history of the growth of tenant right in the district.

Agricultural labourers.

The subject of the employment of field labour other than that of the proprietors or tenants themselves, is thus noticed in answers furnished by the District Officer and inserted in the Famine Report of 1879 (pages 713-14) :—

"In this district there are few well-to-do agriculturists, hence they never employ any permanent hired field labourers. It is only for weeding the kharíf crops of cotton and makki, and at the rabi for the sugar-cane, tobacco and poppy crops, that hired daily labourers are entertained for two or three days at the most. The rates of wages vary according to the amount of work the labourer is able to perform ; the daily labour wages range from two annas to four annas. At reaping time hired labourers are also required, but they are not paid in money ; they receive as wages a load or bundle of the crop they have cut, and which perhaps may yield four or five sérs of grain. There is no special class employed in field labour, but generally *chamárs* of the village or other indigent persons who have no particular means of livelihood. This kind of employment at the most never extends longer than one month at a time. At other times, when not engaged in field labour, these men work in the town as coolies, or perhaps work in leather or weave. About 10 per cent. of the whole population of the district may be assumed to work at times at field labour. The condition of this class (field labourers) is no doubt very inferior to that of even the very poorest self-cultivating proprietors, and they never have any thing in hand ; in short, live from hand to mouth, and in seasons of famine stream out of their villages into the towns, having nothing to fall back upon, and no credit with the village bania; and except here and there, where employed as permanent ploughmen or herdsmen perhaps, they get no assistance from the village agriculturists. In short, in times of distress and scarcity and high prices, these poor wretches are in very evil plight. They have no credit account with the village banker or money-lender."

This description is still sufficiently accurate, but the position of the menial and artisan class in the country is gradually improving. The tendency is towards the breakdown of the customary system under which the village carpenter, blacksmith, potter and shoemaker received fixed dues at harvest time in return for services rendered to the proprietors throughout the year. The growing independence of these classes, and to a somewhat less extent of the ordinary field labourer, enables them

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Agricultural labourers.

to demand higher wages and payment in cash, and thus to share in the benefit which a long era of high prices has brought to the agriculturist.

The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No XXVII. though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

Land transfers; agricultural indebtedness.

Table No. XXXII. gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII. and XXXIII A. show the operations of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX., the extent of civil litigation. The really important figures are contained in Table No. XXXII, which shows the total area of land sold or mortgaged up to 1885 with the details of subsequent alienations and redemptions as given in the annual returns. The indebtedness of the agriculturists in Ambála is a formidable question. In spite of a moderate revenue assessment there are few really prosperous tracts of any size in the district outside the Rúpar and Kharar tahsíls. From a fifth to a fourth of the land has already changed hands since last settlement on sale or mortgage in the Ambála, Pípli and Naráingarh tahsíls, and about one-third in Jagádhri. These transactions include the transfers among agriculturists themselves, which for all practical purposes may be left out of account, but even with all due deductions the inference that the country is gradually, and in recent years rapidly, passing into the hands of money-lenders and speculators is substantially correct. Regarding the alienations in Jagádhri and Pípli the Settlement Officer writes in 1890 as follows:—

"I have already alluded to the extent to which the land in Jagádhri is passing out of the hands of the peasant owners. The matter attracted notice as early as 1868, when the Deputy Commissioner alluded to it in his revenue report. About one-third of the tahsíl has been transferred, half by sale and half by mortgage, and the great bulk of both classes of alienations has been to money-lenders. Half the sales and a fourth of the mortgages are in favour of the bankers of the town of Jagádhri. The worst feature of all is the rapid increase of alienations decade by decade. Details of transfers by tribes are given in the Assessment Report. Between Rájpúts, Gujars, and Jats there is little to choose as regards the fatal facility with which they get rid of their land, and these three tribes at last settlement owned nearly two-thirds of the whole tahsíl, and still own above half of it. The Jagádhri Jat is a very different man from the sturdy Jat of the Central Punjab. He works harder as a rule than his Rájpút neighbour, but if he has the misfortune to live near a small town he gets into debt nearly as easily. The state of some of the Jat estates near Jagádhri is deplorable. Even the thrifty Kamboh has not held his own. Raiens and Málís have stood their ground, but their stake in the tahsíl is a small one.

"I do not think that the assessment had anything to do with the amount of the transfers. Since the revision of the Khádir settlement the demand had nowhere been heavy. The largeness of the holdings has had a bad effect in some parts of the tahsíl. It has tempted the people into extravagance, because they know they could get rid of part of their land without being reduced to beggary. The mass of the agricultural population is ignorant, unthrifty, and unenterprising. They do not spend much on food, but the expenditure on clothing has risen greatly, because the people have largely given up their coarse homespun for inferior English cloths. The cost of marriages has also increased. Every man marries, and nearly every man borrows to do so. The Jats here do not, like those in Ludhiána, recoup themselves for the cost of their sons' brides by selling their daughters. The price of plough-oxen has more than doubled. Once the zamíndár is deep in the Bania's books there is no escape for him, and our judicial system undoubtedly helps him to his ruin. It may be said that it is a good thing that such weaklings should go to the wall. But the Banias who are

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Village communities and tenures.

Land transfers; agricultural indebtedness.

taking their place are greedy and unimproving landlords, and the future of the tahsíl seems to me a dark one, unless some radical measures, such as have been adopted in part of the North-Western Provinces, are taken to arrest the progress of decay.

"In Pípli the money-lenders are less eager to acquire land; but even there above one-fifth of the tahsíl has changed hands by sale or mortgage. But agriculturists have secured a much larger proportion of the transfers than in Jagádhri."

The indebtedness of the agriculturists in the Naráingarh tahsíl is almost as hopeless as in Jagádhri, and in Ambála matters are but little better. Regarding that tahsil the Settlement Officer writes in 1887 that the people have no education, and fall the easiest of prey to the money-lender, and they have neither the energy nor the physique to supplement a precarious living from the land by entering Government service in the army or police. The exceptions to this general rule are a few strong Jat communities such as Panjokhra, Manhra, Shahpur and Kesri, which may be called prosperous by comparison, though even there the prosperity is far below what it should be. Among the Rájpúts, who own more than one-third of the tahsíl, there is scarcely an exception. The great majority of them are Chauháns, the most hopeless of all Rájpút castes, and two-thirds of them are Mussalmáns, the worst among Chauháns. Partly from force of habit, partly from want of hands, they have to leave much of their farming to servants and hired labourers. Where they are obliged to work themselves their troubles begin in the early morning. They have no one to bring food out to them at their work, and they make this an excuse for stopping at home till the morning meal is over. Having nothing to do in the village they huddle together in the village rest-house and smoke, and when at last they struggle out at 10 or 11 in the morning they are half stupified, and not in a condition to work well even for the short half day remaining. Add to this a natural aptitude for spending money freely, and it is not surprising that they fail to get on.

As things stand at present there is no remedy for this, and though an energetic attempt has been made in the last two years to get the people to face the situation more courageously the prospect of any lasting improvement is still remote. Regarding what has been done lately the Deputy Commissioner writes (in January 1893) that all classes except the Saraogi Banias have been induced to abolish useless expenditure on marriages and funerals. With this reduction of expenditure has come a determination on the part of all zamíndárs, even the careless and extravagant Rájpúts, to refuse to sell or mortgage their lands and to pay off their debts. A great deal of debt has been paid off, but a very great deal still remains. This movement has been accompanied to some extent by extended education, but education is still backward. Though much good may undoubtedly be done in this direction by the personal influence of the District Officer, it is to be feared that the habits and traditions of the peasantry in the four southern tahsíls are of too long standing

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to enable them to effectually resist the process of decay without more direct interference on the part of Government, and the difficulties of such interference are too well known to be discussed here. All that need be said is that if any general scheme should be devised for the relief of agricultural indebtedness in the Punjab, there are large sections of Ambála which are among the worst affected tracts in the eastern portion of the Province, and to which consequently the scheme might be most usefully applied.

Village loans and interest.

The rate of interest charged by money-lenders to agriculturists is generally Re. 1-9-0 per cent. per month, and on simple bonds varies from that rate up to 37½ per cent. per annum. In case of mortgages, the interest varies from 12 to 18 per cent. per annum, and from 9 to 12 when jewels or other valuables are pawned as security. In loans of grain, effected principally by petty village shopkeepers, interest ranges from 37½ to 48 per cent. per annum, payments being made in kind and for the most part at the valuation of the creditor. There are but few large bankers, and the loan business is mostly carried on by local shopkeepers. Among the strong Jat communities of Kharar and Rúpar it is common enough for the agriculturists to lend money among themselves so as to keep the professional bania out of a village, and in Rúpar especially there seems to be no want of capital in the villages for the purchase of land when a suitable holding comes into the market.

SECTION E.—LEADING FAMILIES AND JAGIRS.

Origin of jágírs.

The Ambála district is differently situated from others of the Punjab in respect of the very large amount of revenue assigned to jágírdárs in perpetuity. The origin of the jágírs has been traced in Chapter II. A large majority of the leading Sardárs of the district and nearly the whole of the minor fraternities of assignees known as pattidári jágirdárs are descended from the Sikh conquerors of 1763. The principal exceptions are the Mír of Kotáha, the Baidwán Sardárs of Sohana and Manakmájra in the Kharar tahsíl, the Rájpút Sardárs of Rámgarh and Ráipur in Naráingarh, and two families of Patháns with their head-quarters at Kotla Nihang in Rúpar and Khizrábad in Jagádhri. The ancestors of these excepted families were already firmly established in the district at the time of the Sikh invasion and were strong enough to hold their own with more or less success in the stormy period from 1763 to 1808. The proclamations of 1809 and 1811 guaranteed to every man alike, whether a Sikh conqueror or an indigenous ruler, the permanent right to the villages which he held at the time, and thereafter no distinction has ever been drawn between the two classess. The Cis-Sutlej Sikh jágírdárs have however never succeeded in identifying themselves with the people of the district. They still look back on the Mánjha as their real home, and if they notice the Ambála people at all it is usually to recall the days when they had full license to oppress them,

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and to show too plainly what line they would take if those days should ever return. It is hardly too much to say that they are an aristocracy with no tradition but that of plunder, with little claim to respect as the scions of an ancient line, aliens and foreigners still, and with no sympathy for the people from whom they derive their revenue.

Though all political power was taken out of the hands of the jágírdárs in 1849, Government scrupulously upheld their right to the revenue in perpetuity in accordance with the proclamation of 1809. The right was construed strictly both for and against the jágírdárs, under a series of orders passed between 1851 and 1856. The general effect of the orders was to constitute three separate classes of jágírdárs, known as—

(1) Major jágírdárs;

(2) Pattidári jágírdárs, and

(3) Zaildárs or subordinate feudatories of No. (1).

The major jágírdárs.

The major jágirdárs include nearly all the leading Sardárs of the district, entitled to the revenue of a larger or smaller (often a very large) group of villages. Government is entitled to the reversion of this revenue in all cases on absolute failure of heirs, and in most on failure of heirs tracing descent to a common ancestor alive in 1809. The exact position of these major jágírdárs is not however clearly defined, and each case is liable to be re-opened at the death of the holder, though ordinarily there is little doubt as to the terms of succession by heirs. "In practice the status of 1808-9, though not absolutely prescribed for guidance by Government, has almost invariably been referred to as governing claims of collaterals to succeed to large estates, the custom of the family being referred to only to determine whether the estates should descend integrally or be divided among the nearest heirs, either in equal or unequal shares, what provision should be made for widows, and other points of the like nature." The really influential men among these larger Sardárs are very few, and family after family is chiefly noticeable for the frequency with which drink and debauchery have brought their victims to an early grave. In not a few cases it is an open secret that vicious lives have led to a failure of lawfully begotten heirs, and that extinction of the house, with the consequent lapse of the jágír to Government, have only been avoided through the extreme difficulty attending any investigation into the private affairs of the family—a difficulty which makes it almost impossible to ascertain the truth even where the facts obtain an open notoriety. There have been only two important escheats in the last thirty years, covering the Siálba and Manimájra jágírs. Many of the families have however only one or two representatives, and it is a necessary though disagreeable part of the Deputy Commissioner's duties to watch the circumstances of the families closely.

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The pattídári jágírdárs and zaildárs.

The origin of the minor fraternities known as pattídári jágírdárs is similar to that of the larger Sardárs. They are the lineal descendents of men who overran the country under the leadership of petty chiefs or who were summoned later from the Manjha to assist these chiefs in holding their own. Villages had been seized by them or awarded to them for maintenance according to the general custom of 1760—1800 and when the existing position of all parties became crystallized by the transactions of 1809 to 1811, they were recognised as independent holders of the villages originally granted to them. It follows that the pattídárs also have been in most cases given the status of 1809, that is, whether the present holders are represented by one or two sharers or by hundreds, all representatives within the patti have rights of inheritance as collaterals from sharers dying without issue provided that they and the deceased sharers can trace common descent from an ancestor living in 1809. Even so many of the shares have died out, and the corresponding revenue has lapsed to Government, and it is in this way that shared villages have become so numerous all over Ambála. It may be said broadly that these men have no aims beyond living on their jágír where it is large enough, and starving on it where increasing numbers in the family have reduced each share to a miserable pittance. As a rule, they own no land and look down on a life of agriculture. The best of them are those who have returned to their native land and taken to regular employment. Those who remain for the most part either cannot or will not enter the service of Government, and their greatest pleasure lies in stirring up useless dissensions among the zamíndárs.

It is the case that all the original pattís have obtained the status of 1809, but as a matter of fact many of the groups now classed as pattídári jágírdárs are recorded with the status of later years. The explanation lies in the position of the third class known as zaildári jágírdárs. The zails are jágírs now held by representatives of men to whom the villages in question were awarded by large Sardárs, either before or after 1809, with less definite surrender of superior rights than in the case of the ordinary pattídárs. The theory and to some extent the practice, was that the Sardárs could resume at will from their zaildárs, and whether this was correct or not the zaildárs themselves recognised their inferior position at the time of the earlier investigations and were accordingly entered as such. The practical difference between the zaildárs and pattídárs may therefore be stated by saying that when the whole or part of a zaildári jágír lapses on failure of heirs, the lapsed revenue goes not to Government but the major jágírdár concerned.

For reasons which need not now be followed up the status of zaildárs was fixed in 1854 on the basis of the year 1847, and in case of lapse of the major jágír concerned the outstanding zaildárs then become ordinary pattídars except that their status is still that of 1847 and not 1809. Further when investigation was being carried out at last settlement it was found that many

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of the superior jágírs had lapsed without formal definition of the zaildárs' rights. The orders passed were that the zaildárs in such cases should derive their status from the date of year of lapse. The practice followed seems however to have been to allow the status of 1809 except in certain cases of recent lapse. It is these cases which (omitting minor complications) partly account for the appearance among the pattídári jágírs of certain pattís with the status of years other than 1809.

The total sum including commutation now distributed among the different classes of jágírdárs is as follows:—

Major jágírdárs	... ...	Rs. 2,55,811
Pattídári do.	... ...	„ 3,05,519
Zaildári do.	... ...	„ 15,519

Total jágír revenue and number of sharers.

The rate of commutation paid varies in particular cases, but is usually one anna or two annas per rupee of revenue. A full detail of each class, showing the number of families and sharers in each jágír is given in an Appendix, as it is often convenient to be able to refer readily to the particulars of a jágír. The major jágírdárs usually hold their jágírs in not more than one or two shares. The pattídári jágír shares are much more numerous. The following table gives the figures by tahsíls:—

Tahsil.	Total pattídári jágír revenue.	Villages in which held. Whole.	Part.	Total.	Total number of. Families.	Sharers.	Number of distinct pattís.
	Rs.						
Ambála ...	85,297	117	37	154	257	980	21
Kharar ...	54,709	36	99	135	576	1,838	26
Rúpar ...	31,593	64	1	65	171	345	9
Naráingarh ...	30,149	60	25	85	181	589	28
Pípli ...	48,145	110	57	167	258	792	21
Jagádhri ...	55,202	99	74	173	228	830	25
Total District ...	3,05,095	486	293	779	1,671	5,374	130

A family in this statement means the group of descendants from the common ancestor living in 1809 or any other year on the basis of which the jágír status is calculated. As long as any descendant remains, the heirless shares pass to the remaining members of this family and not to Government. In the

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Total jágír revenue and number of sharers.

majority of cases the prospects of ultimate lapse to Government are now remote and the result is that the number of sharers increases and the value of the shares proportionately diminishes with each successive generation. The following table shows the families and sharers classified according to the annual value of their shares as ascertained in 1889 :—

Value of shares.	4 annas and under.	4 annas to Re. 1.	Re. 1 to Rs. 5.	Rs. 5 to Rs 10.	Rs. 10 to Rs. 25.	Rs. 25 to Rs. 50.	Rs. 50 to Rs. 100.	Rs. 100 to Rs. 500.	Over Rs. 500.	Total.
Families...	32	65	127	72	217	221	323	503	111	1,671
Shares ...	148	241	746	703	1,289	965	685	501	96	5,374

A short account is now given of each of the principal Sardár families, following generally the order in which they stand in the district Darbár list of Víceregal darbárís. The pedigree tables, when given, omit the names of collaterals who have died without heirs and of ancestors further back than the holders of the year 1809. The value of the jágír held by the family is stated in parts A. or B. of the Appendix. The early history of a few of the principal families is given at greater length in "Chiefs and Families of Note" by Major C. F. Massy.

The Buria family.

(1). The Buria family ranks first in the district, and is entitled to that place in view of the large jágír income enjoyed. It is however to be regretted that it is not possible to endorse the favourable account given in "Chiefs and Families of Note" of the present jágírdár, Sardár Jiwan Singh, C.I.E., born in 1844. During his long minority the estate was carefully nursed, but the Sardár fell into bad hands shortly after obtaining the management of his affairs, and under their evil influence the fine property to which he succeeded has been almost irretrievably ruined. The Sardár has recently again become a Ward of Court on the ground of natural incapacity for managing his affairs, though it is to be feared that the remedy has been applied too late to save the estate, which had become hopelessly burdened with debt. An arrangement has been made to compound with the creditors for a lump sum advanced in cash from the balance at credit of the Manauli Wards Estate, on the credit of the Buria jágír income and large property in land, but it is probable that the land will eventually have to be sold in order to pay off the debt to Manauli. Sardár Jiwan Singh is now the sole representative of the family, his only son Gajjandar Singh having been killed by an accident in 1890. He lives in complete seclusion at Buria, on the comparatively small allowance which it is possible to make to him from his heavily encumbered estate. He has for many years taken no part or interest in the affairs of the district.

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The Shahzádpur family.

(2). Sardár Jiwan Singh, C.S.I., of Shahzádpur, born in 1860, is the sole surviving representative of a Sikh family which rose to importance in the days of Guru Gobind Singh, and which is still recognised among the Sikhs by the title of Shahid (martyr) in honor of the legendary exploits of a former head of the family in the course of his struggles with the Muhammadan Governors of the Eastern Punjab. The Sardár was married in 1884 to a sister of the Maháraja of Patiála. He holds large jágírs in the Naráingarh and Ambála tahsíls and smaller assignments in the Pípli tahsíl and Hissár and Ferozepore districts, and has made for himself a fine country seat at Shahzádpur, where he keeps up a racing stable. Though not taking any very prominent part in the affairs of the district the Sardár has done credit to the careful training which he received during a long minority under the Court of Wards, and he has so far managed his affairs with a success which is unfortunately the rare exception among the leading jágírdárs of Ambála. The head-quarters of his jágír villages in Ambála tahsil are at Kesrí, where he owns a large, though somewhat dilapidated, fort. He also owns a large house in the Ambála Civil Lines, but resides the greater part of the year at either Shahzádpur or Patiála. The Shahzádpur property includes a considerable tract of jungle (Bír) with a little shooting.

The Singhpuria family.

The Singhpuria family—

BUDH SINGH (died 1816).

- Bhupál Singh, (died 1850).
  - Partab Singh, (born 1847). (Two sons and one grandson alive).
  - Utam Singh, (born 1844). (Four sons and two grandsons alive).
- Dyal Singh, (died 1863).
  - Kishen Singh, (died 1885).
    - Bhola Singh, (born 1879).
  - Kher Singh, (died 1885).
    - Shamsher Singh, (born 1857).
    - Randir Singh, (born 1863).
      - Jogendra Singh, (born 1892).
- Gopal Singh, (died 1854).
  - Jai Singh, (died 1877).
    - Autar Singh, (born 1873).

(3). The pedigree table given above includes the survivors of the main branch of the great Singhpuria family, which holds large jágírs in the Kharar and Rúpar tahsíls. There is a separate branch, known as the Bhareli family mentioned as No. (6) later on, which has no right of collateral succession with the descendants of Budh Singh.

Sardár Budh Singh married three times and the jágír descends in the main family according to the custom of uterine inheritance (*chundáwánd*). Originally the jágír was divided into the six estates of Bela, Manauli, Bunga, Bharatgarh, Kandaula and Ghanauli. The Bela line became extinct in 1857, and that estate then merged in Manauli. The Bunga line be-

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The Singhpuria family.

came extinct in 1890, one-half of the jágír then lapsing to the Ghanauli Sardárs, one-third to the Kandaula representatives and one-sixth to the Bharatgarh branch. The existing heads of the remaining four lines are as follows :—

(1). Sardár Autár Singh of Manauli.
(2). Sardárs Shamsher Singh and Randír Singh of Bharatgarh.
(3). Sardár Bhola Singh of Kandaula.
(4). Sardárs Utam Singh and Partab Singh of Ghanauli.

The whole of these Sardárs have rights of succession as descendants of Budh Singh, the possessor of 1809, and as there are a good many surviving representatives the prospect of ultimate lapse of the jágír to Government is remote, though it is probable enough that one or more of the different lines may become extinct. In "Chiefs and Families of Note" it is observed that during "the last half century, the family has been unfortunately more distinguished for its vices than its virtues. None of its representatives have been men of mark. Few have even lived lives of ordinary respectability, and * * * * there is no better typical instance of the rapid degeneration of character among the leaders of the Cis-Sutlej Sikhs, where British protection has secured them in the enjoyment of large revenues, and left them without the necessity to work for their position, and without sufficiently strong inducement to uphold the honor of the family name." It is unnecessary to follow out the fortunes of the family in great detail. Sardár Autár Singh of Manauli, the sole representative of the Manauli branch covering nearly half the total jágír of the family, has been a minor under the Court of Wards ever since he was four years old. He will shortly succeed to his estate, which is a very fine one including extensive proprietary rights in both Rúpar and Kharar, and will then have the command of a large income and much capital saved for him during the minority, but he is a young man of weak constitution, and has recently been afflicted with blindness, which will, it is feared, prove incurable. He is married to a daughter of the late well-known Sardár Ajít Singh of Atári in the Amritsar district. The Kandaula Sardár is also a minor. The Bharatgarh and Ghanauli branches are represented by fairly prosperous country gentlemen, living in the Rúpar tahsíl, but the family is much divided against itself, and the only one of the existing Sardárs who can be said to have a position of any prominence in the district is Sardár Utam Singh of Ghanauli.

The Kotaha family.

(4). The Kotáha Sayyad family is one of the very few in the district which had attained a position of importance before the Sikh invasion of 1763, and which was strong enough to hold its own against the invaders. The property now consists of jágír revenue from a number of villages in the plains of tahsíl Naráingarh, parganna Kotáha, and from nearly the whole of the villages in the Morni hill ilaka, with proprietary right in many of the jágír villages in the plains and extensive rights in the Morni jungles, commonly known as the Morni forest, described

in Chapter IV. The jágírdár, usually spoken of as the Mír of Kotáha, also enjoys a perpetual pension of Rs. 400 a year, granted in 1850, in return for the surrender of the right to levy transit duties within the limits of the Morni tract.

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Leading families and Jagirdars.

The Kotaha family.

The original rulers of Morni, as far back as tradition reaches, were certain Rájpút *Thákurs*, who held it parcelled out into 14 small estates. Each of these estates was called a *bhoj*. The subdivision thus effected exists to the present day. The *bhoj* is still the unit of subdivision, and each still retains much the same boundaries which it had in the old Rájpút times. The *Thákurs* owed allegiance to the Rájás of Sírmur, but at last appear to have asserted independence, whereupon the Sírmur Rája called in the aid of some Rájpút adventurers from Hindústán. Kotáha was subdued, and made over by the Rája to Partáb Chand, one of his Rájpút allies, to whom he had given his daughter in marriage. Partáb Chand's family held Kotáha for 11 generations. The Náhan Rája then attempting to oust them, they procured help from Delhi. The leader sent to their relief was Hakím Kásim Khán. He expelled the Sírmur Rája, but usurped the power for himself. These events took place about the middle of the 17th century. Kásim Khán's descendants ruled Kotáha for about 100 years, but were at last ousted by the Sírmur Rája, who once more obtained possession, and held it until the beginning of the present century. He then in turn was ousted by the Gurkhas, who held possession for nearly four years. Then followed the Gurkha campaign of 1814-15, which placed the whole of Sírmur at the disposal of the British Government. Kotáha was bestowed upon Mír Jafir Khan, who then represented the family of Kásim Khán, in consideration of his ancient title and certain services which he rendered during the war.

The following are the terms of the Sanad presented to the Mír on 26th October 1816, by General Ochterlony on behalf of the Governor-General, conferring the Morni tract upon the family.

" WHEREAS by the Grace of God the whole body of the Gurkhas has been driven out of this country and all the places belonging to this district having been brought under the British powers, the old places of the many ancient Rájas who had lost their rule and estates by the Gurkha tyranny have come by the generosity of this Government in consideration of the Rájas' priority and possessions under the head of gratuity (*Bakhshish*). Therefore by the order of His Excellency the Governor-General of India, the taluka of Morni, including the fort and the villages appertianing thereto as detailed below and three (3) Sayer Chaukís and the income from fairs of the shrines of *Bhowáni* (goddess) in Tilokpur and Samlotha, besides the collections from the lands of Tilokpur situate in the low country (*des*), together with all description of rights or interests, outer and inner *khárji* (and *dákhilí*), which were in the hands of the Gurkha *karindahs* have been restored to and established in the name of Mir

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The Kotaha family.

Muhammad Jáfar Ali Khán Sáhib of Kotáha in permanent tenure, generation after generation and issue after issue. The said Mír Sáhib ought to consider this document as a genuine Sanad and take possession of his villages, and taking care not to encroach upon the territories of others, he should heartily employ himself in settling down the people and awarding justice to all complainants, and return thanks for this bounty by zealously submitting to and obeying the orders of the British officers with great constancy.

"And whenever a disturbance may take rise, he should attend himself with his present forces for Government service, and should not disobey orders for procuring Begárís as is practical, from his iláka, such as may be required on the occasion, and that it is incumbent and proper upon himself to construct such roads within the precincts of the taluka of Morni for the passage of a cart, as may be considered requisite.

"Than the above-mentioned matters no further demand of *Pesh kash* (present) or *nazarána* (offerings) will be made from him on the part of the British officers, at any time.

"The arrangement of the subjects in the said taluka will be that they shall consider the said Mír Sáhib as the permanent proprietor of the taluka, generation after generation, and shall omit nothing in paying the proper revenue, increasing the cultivation, showing submission, and obedience and other manners becoming the capacity of ryots. In this matter they are severally enjoined."

(NOTE.—This is the extant translation of the Sanad which is commonly referred to by the Mír, and it is sufficiently accurate for purposes of reference. It is followed by a list of the *bhojes* and hamlets, which is not worth reproducing.)

Recent history of the Mír's family.

The recent history of the Mír's family is rather curious, and without dwelling unduly on his past troubles it is necessary to state the facts briefly so that the exact position of affairs may be understood. In the Mutiny the then Mír, Akbar Ali Khán, grandfather of the present jágírdár, fell under grave suspicion of giving assistance to bands of rebels passing through Naráingarh. It is probable that in the general confusion of the time the extent of his actual complicity was somewhat exaggerated. This at any rate was the opinion strongly held by Mr. Melvill, and put forward by him shortly afterwards in a memorandum which is still in existence. The time was not however one for nice distinctions of right and wrong, and severe punishment was promptly ordered. The Mír's forts at Kotáha in the plains and Morni in the hills were destroyed, and his entire jágír in hills and plains was reduced by two annas in the rupee, to be thenceforward levied as commutation dues from which he had been previously exempt under special orders of the Government of India. In 1864 the Mír unfortunately came again under the severe displeasure of the Government on a charge of conspiracy, and on an attempt to partially rebuild his fort at Kotáha with-

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Leading families and Jagirdars.

Recent history of the Mír's family.

out permission. He narrowly escaped resumption of his jágír, and was banished from the district, being forbidden to reside either at Morni or Kotáha, and his whole property in Naráingarh was brought under direct official management. It is satisfactory that on a further enquiry made in 1876 the Government was able to cancel the sentence of banishment and to sanction the restoration of his property. The orders were communicated in 1876 but as a fact the property was not finally restored till 1880. In the meanwhile the present Mír, Bakar Ali Khán, who was not directly concerned in his grandfather's trouble, had settled in the Bulandshahr district of the North-West Provinces, and had there inherited a large zamíndári property in the Bulandshahr, Aligarh and Budáon districts. He has in consequence elected to reside permanently in the Bulandshahr district, and has been rewarded with the title of C. I. E. for his services there. In consideration of the special circumstances under which the [illegible] tract was acquired the jágír revenue of the ilaka was [illegible] from commutation for military service under orders [illegible]nd 1852. In 1858 these orders were revoked in [illegible]ce of Mír Akbar Khán's misbehaviour, and the usual [illegible]tion tax at two annas per rupee of revenue was levied [illegible]92, when the tax was again remitted. The exemption [illegible]t apply to the Mír's jágír villages in the plains of Naráin-[illegible] which are held under the general terms covered by the proclamation of 1809 and subsequent orders in force for the Ambála district as a whole.

Mír Bakar Ali Khán has two sons and one grandson alive. He was himself born in 1842. He seldom resides in Ambála and manages his property through an agent at Kotáha.

The Soháná and Manakmajra family.

(5). The Soháná family is another of what may be called the indigenous families of the district, having been firmly established before the Sikh invasion of 1763. The Sardár of Soháná holds an almost unique position among the principal Sardárs of the district, as a real leader among the people, being himself a Baidwán Jat and the hereditary head of the prosperous tribe of Baidwán Jats who occupy the more important of his jágír villages.

The pedigree of the family is as follows :—

RANJIT SINGH, (*d.* 1821).

- Jassa Singh, (*d.* 1828).
  - Basáwa Singh, (*d.* 1864).
    - Naráin Singh, (*b.* 1861).
- Bhúp Singh, (*d.* 1850).
  - Bhagwán Singh, (*b.* 1835).

The jágír is divided into two branches. Sardár Bhagwán Singh represents the senior line at Soháná, and Sardár Naráin Singh the junior at Mánakmájra. Sardár Bhagwán Singh is an excellent specimen of the better class of Sikh jágírdár. He

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Leading families and Jagirs.

The Sohána and Manakmajra family.

lives an old fashioned life in his fort at Sohána, holds powers as an Honorary Magistrate and Sub-Registrar, and uses his powers on the whole with discretion and good effect. The Baidwáns are a strong, turbulent set of men, and it is fortunate that they have at their head a man who is capable of exercising much good influence in the country, and who really represents the people from whom he derives his income.

The Bhareli family.

(6). Sardár Tára Singh of Bhareli in the Kharar tahsíl represents a minor branch of the Singhpuria family, which has been already mentioned. He was born in 1858 and holds a large jágír in a detached block of villages situated round Bhareli. The family has now no direct connection with the main Singhpuria branch, and there is no right of collateral succession between the two. Sardár Tára Singh succeeded to his estate after a long minority under the Court of Wards, during which he was educated at the Wards School then situated at Ambála. He leads a somewhat retired life at Bhareli and on the rare occasions on which he comes into prominence it is not always under creditable circumstances. At the same time he has more natural capacity than many others among the Singhpuria Sardárs. At the time of writing (1893) he has one son alive, born in 1883.

The Kharar and Maloa families.

(7). The present position of the Kharar and Maloa families is explained by the following abbreviated pedigree table:—

Dyal Singh, (d. 1808).

- Gurmukh Singh, (d. 1852).
  - (Many descendants).
- Kishan Singh, (d. 1809).
  - Diwán Singh, (b. 1818).
  - Kiwan Singh, (d. 1880).
    - Naráin Singh, (b. 1858).
    - Natha Singh, (b. 1854).
    - Atar Singh, (b. 1840).
  - Nagina Singh, (d. 1857)
    - (Many descendants).
- Dharm Singh, (d. 1814).
  - Charat Singh, (d. 1828).
    - Ganda Singh, (d. 1877).
      - Harnám Singh, (b. 1860).

Sardár Harnám Singh, the present head of the family, holds the Kharar jágír of about Rs. 7,000 a year. The remaining descendants of Dyál Singh, some twenty in number, divide the Maloa jágír of about Rs. 4,200 in fractional shares, and hold other property in the Jullundur, Hoshiárpur and Ferozepore districts. Most of them live in those districts, but some few of the Sardárs reside at Maloa in tahsíl Kharar. There is a long standing dispute in the family. The Maloa Sardárs claim the right of succession to the Kharar jágír as collaterals descended from Dyál Singh who was alive in 1808, but the right has never been formally recognised, and in the event of the Kharar line becoming extinct it would probably

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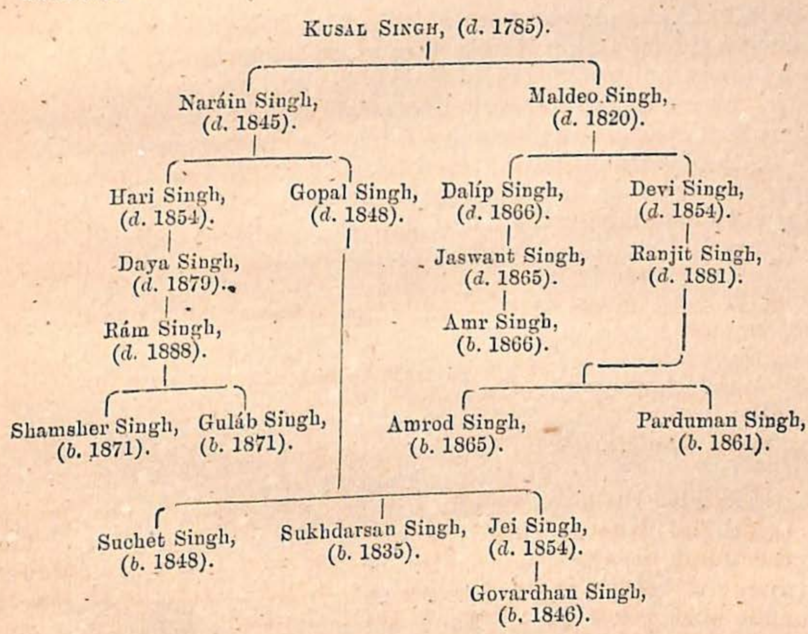
The Kharar and Maloa families.

be held that Dyál Singh could not be considered the possessor of 1809, and that the Kharar jágír would consequently lapse to Government. There is now no immediate probability of failure of heirs to Sardár Harnam Singh, and the question of succession may therefore never arise. It may however be noticed, in case the matter should ever require a decision, that a claim on the part of the Maloa Sardárs should be scrutinised very closely, and would probably be found untenable.

Sardár Harnám Singh is a quiet, well disposed gentleman living at Kharar. There is not much to be said in favour of the Maloa Sardárs. Sardár Atar Singh of Maloa ranks high in the district Darbár list, though his actual jágír share in Ambála is under Rs. 400 a year.

The Ramgarh family

(8). Excluding villages held by the Mír of Kotáha nearly the whole remaining revenue of plains villages in the Kotáha parganah of tahsíl Naráingarh is assigned to a large family of Rájpút Sardárs having its head-quarters at Rámgarh. This family also was established in the district before the Sikh invasion of 1763. It has no direct connection with the Rájpút villages of Naráingarh, and claims relationship with the higher caste Rájpúts of the Simla hill States. The pedigree is as follows:—



The two main branches of the family, descended from Maldeo Singh and Naráin Singh, are quite distinct, as Mián Kusal Singh died before 1809. The head of the elder branch, Mián Parduman Singh, receives rather over a third of the total *jágír* of Rs. 18,400 a year. There are special orders about this family recognising the right of primogeniture, and the

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Leading families and Jagirs.

The Ramgarh family.

younger brother Sardár Amrod Singh is entitled to maintenance only. The remaining Rs. 12,000 of *jágír* revenue is divided among the following Sardárs :—

(1). Amr Singh of Dhandarru.

(2). Govardhan Singh of Kishangarh.

(3). Sukhdarsan Singh and Suchet Singh of Khatauli.

(4). Shamsher Singh and Guláb Singh of Ramgarh.

Sardár Amr Singh's right to a share in the *jágír* is not usually recognised in the family, though the case was decided by Government in his favour when the dispute arose. Sardár Govardhan Singh's *jágír* includes the revenue of Bharal in *Bhoj* Mator of the Morni ilaka, a village now assessed at Rs. 320 and the only part of the Morni tract of which the revenue is not enjoyed by the Mír of Kotaha or his sub-assignees.

Most of the Sardárs are respectable men, but Mián Parduman Singh alone takes a prominent position in the country, exercising powers as an Honorary Magistrate and Sub-Registrar. The family holds itself aloof from the people of the district in virtue of its connection with ruling families in the Hill States. It is the only family of this class anywhere in Ambála.

The Shahabad family.

(9). The Shahabad family of the Pípli tahsíl is now represented by Sardárs Shib Naráin Singh and Bachittar Singh only, both minors and grandsons of Ranjít Singh, the possessor of 1809. There was till recently a separate branch of the family known as the Karindwa branch. This has become extinct by the death of Sardár Rám Naráin Singh in 1892, the Karindwa *jágír* consequently lapsing to Government. The Shahabad family ranks high in the list of Ambála Darbárís, but it is no longer one of much real importance in the district.

The Raipur family.

(10). The Sardárs of Ráipur in Naráingarh represent a very ancient family of Rájpúts. The head of the family takes the title of Ráo and is the recognised head of the Hindu Chauhán Rájpúts of Naráingarh. In former times it held a very strong position in the district, but many of the Ráipur villages were seized by the Sardár of Shahzádpur in or about 1763. The family still holds large *máfi* assignments (*lahnas*) or fractional shares in the *jágír* revenue of a number of villages in Naráingarh, in addition to the *jágír* of the Ráipur villages proper, and it also owns the whole village of Ráipur, but it has become heavily indebted in the endeavour to keep up appearances without the necessary means. The only surviving representatives are two minors, Sardárs Baldeo Singh and Jeideo Singh. The custom of primogeniture has been adopted in the family and Baldeo Singh has been declared heir to the *jágír* estate. He was born in 1875, and his cousin Jeideo Singh in 1873. The property is difficult to manage well as it is widely scattered and heavily encumbered.

The Kotla Nihang family.

(11). The survivors of the Patháu family of Kotla Nihang in Tahsíl Rúpar are connected as follows:—

BHIKAN KHAN, (*d.* 1802).

- Ghulám Mohi-ud-dín Khan, (*d.* 1856).
  - Faiz Muhammad Khan, (*b.* 1856).
- Balwant Khan, (*d.* 1844).
  - Atar Muhammad Khan, (*d.* 1885).
    - Muhammad Alam Khan, (*b.* 1844).

There are other descendants of Bhikan Khán living in Kotla Nihang, who do not share in the *jágír* through failure to trace legitimate descent. The family holds extensive proprietary rights in villages lying under the low hills of Rúpar. The *jágír* is now divided in the proportion roughly of two-thirds to Muhammad Alam Khán and one-third to Faiz Muhammad Khán, special orders having been laid down to regulate the succession after a prolonged dispute in 1872-73 (Punjab Government No. 318, dated 5th March 1873). The family is much divided against itself and is now conspicuous mainly for its tendency to engage in useless litigation. It must formerly have been of some importance to be able to hold its own against powerful enemies in the Singhpuria and Rúpar Sardárs.

The Thol family.

(12). The Thol or Tingor family of Tahsíl Pípli represents a minor branch of the Shahíd confederacy of which the Shahzádpur Sardár is the titular head. The pedigree is as follows:—

GURBAKHSH SINGH, (*d.* 1810).

- Dyál Singh, (*d.* 1840).
  - Jowáhir Singh.
    - Jasmir Singh, (*b.* 1850).
    - Kishan Singh, (*b.* 1848).
  - Lál Singh, (*b.* 1816).

Sardár Lál Singh at present holds only a life share in the family *jágír*, having lost status in 1839 under circumstances stated in the account of the family given in "Chiefs and Families of Note." The question whether he should be restored to the position of a perpetuity jágírdár is now under discussion.

Other vice-regal darbárís.

The following is a list of the remaining families, one or more members of which are entitled to a seat in the Vice-regal Darbár. Each of the Sardárs mentioned holds a considerable *jágír*, but there is little to notice specially about the family history. All alike are descendants of the Cis-Sutlej invaders of 1763.

(13). Sardár Jowála Singh of Jharauli in Pípli.

(14). Sardárs Tilok Singh and Naino Singh of Mustafábad in Jagádhri.

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Leading families and Jagirs.

Other vice-regal darbáris.

(15). Sardár Zorawar Singh of Leda in Jagádhri.

(16). Sardár Hardit Singh of Dyálgarh in Jagádhri.

(17). Sardár Sheo Naráin Singh of Purkhali in Rúpar.

(18). Sardár Partáb Singh of Miánpur in Rúpar.

(19). Sardár Sant Singh of Sikandra in Pípli.

(20). Sardár Kirpál Singh of Dhin in Ambála.

Of these the Jharauli, Dyálgarh, Purkhali and Miánpur families were not formerly recognised among the 34 leading houses of the district. The distinction has long ceased to be anything but nominal, but they are for this reason classed as *pattidári* jágírdárs in the Appendix.

The Miánpur jágír (No. 18) was originally a subordinate feudatory (*zail*) of the great Siálba estate which lapsed in 1866, and as such holds status from the year 1847 instead of 1809. The present representative, Sardár Partáb Singh, is one of the most energetic and useful of the Ambála Sardárs.

In addition to the above the list of major jágirdárs for the district (Statement A. of the Appendix) comprises the relatively unimportant families of Saran in Jagádhri and Dhanaura Labkari in Pípli, together with a detail of *jágír* shares held in Ambála by the Sardárs of Ladhrán in Ludhiána, and Arnauli Siddowál in Karnál. Some notice is required lastly of the Bhabhat *jágír* in tahsíl Kharar. This *jágír* stands on a footing of its own, having been granted as a reward for mutiny services to Rája Bahadur Singh of the Kuthar State in the Simla district, and is consequently exempt from commutation tax. The present holders, Sardárs Basant Singh and Govardhan Singh are minors.

Leading groups of pattídári jágírdárs.

Many of the *pattídári* jágírdárs (Statement B. of the Appendix) have large *jágír* incomes, but comparatively few hold a position of such importance in the district as to entitle them to mention among the leading families. The Patháns of Khizrábad in Jagádhri, the Rájpúts of Burail in Kharar and the Baidwán Jats of Bakarpur in the same tahsíl are the principal groups of jágírdárs whose connection with the country dates from the period before the Sikh conquest. The minor Sikh jágírdárs are counted by thousands, but as they are for the most part mere jágírdárs without proprietary rights in the land they have neither the means nor the inclination to take any prominent part in the affairs of the district.

Of leading men other than jágírdárs there are very few, and it is often a matter of some difficulty even to find a duly qualified headman to fill the post of inámdár or zaildár under the scheme described in Section C. of this Chapter. There are few large landholders, and such as there are have usually burdened their estate with a heavy load of debt, making it now impossible for them to take that position in the country to which they would otherwise be entitled by the previous history of their families.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE AND LIVE STOCK.

Chapter IV., A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live Stock.

General statistics of agriculture.

Table No. XIV. gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation, and for Government waste land ; while the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III. and IIIA. and IIIB. Table No. XVII. shows statistics of Government estates. Table No. XX. gives the areas under the principal staples, and statistics of live stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this chapter. Land tenures, tenants and rent, and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section D.

The seasons : Rainfall.

The total annual fall of rain and the manner in which it is distributed throughout the year are shown in Tables Nos. III, IIIA. and IIIB. The seasons, so far as they affect the staple food grains, have been discussed in Chapter III, page 40.

The system of husbandry.

The Assessment Reports published separately for each tahsíl in the years 1885 to 1888 contain full details of the system of agriculture followed in every part of the district, the nature of the crops grown in the irrigated and unirrigated lands and the extent to which crop areas vary from year to year. The district includes a great variety of soil, and agriculture is carried on under widely different conditions in different parts, but throughout the greater part of Ambála the regular two-year course of agriculture prevails, land lying fallow for a whole year and then being cultivated for two successive crops. The benefits of the long fallow are well understood, and it is only in the exceptional circumstances of irrigated lands, or of an unusually favourable rainfall, that the practice is departed from. There has been comparatively little change of system in the last forty years. The demands of the export trade have led to some increase in the area grown with wheat and cotton, the latter in the Kharar tahsíl especially, and the tendency of fixed cash assessments has been to encourage generally the more valuable crops, such as sugarcane, tobacco, poppy, vegetables and spices. All these however require specially favourable conditions of soil and industry, and the area on which they can be grown is necessarily limited. The great mass of the people still depend on the staple grains and pulses, wheat and gram in the spring harvest and maize, rice, moth and másh in the autumn, together with a large charri crop

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Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live Stock.

The system of husbandry.

grown as fodder for their cattle. Almost the only agricultural implement which has been accepted by the people as an improvement on the traditional methods of their forefathers is the small iron roller sugar mill originally introduced from Behar about ten years ago. There was for a long time much opposition even to this, in spite of the ease with which it is worked as compared with the wooden mills (belna or kolhu) formerly in use; and it is still not universally accepted, but the popularity of the iron mill is now assured, especially since the Náhan foundry took to turning out a large number of an improved pattern at a great decrease in the original cost price.

The soils.

The soils most commonly recognised by the people are highly manured homestead lands (niai), loam (seoti), clay (dákar), very stiff clay used for rice cultivation only (dahr), flooded land, (sailab) and sandy soil (ret or bhur). There are many other local terms indicating various degrees of fertility, but these represent the principal classes of land on which crops can be grown without irrigation. The land irrigated by wells is all alike called cháhi, whether irrigated from Persian wheels, the leather bag (charas) or small hand lever wells (dhingli). Where the soil is much damaged by sand blown up from sand drifts or the beds of hill streams it is said to be *urár már* and where damaged by surface drainage or ravine cutting (as is very commonly the case in Ambála) the term used is *darrar*.

rrigation.

The small extent of irrigation in the district, whether from wells or streams, has been described on page 3. The only parts in which wells are extensively used over any considerable area are the uplands of the Pípli and Rúpar tahsíls. In Pípli the average depth to water in the different circles is in the Khadir 9 feet, Bet Márkanda 18 feet, Northern Chachra 19 feet, Bangar 24 feet, and Southern Chachra 25 feet. The depth increases as one proceeds westwards and southwards, but this rule is modified by the effect exercised by the hill streams in raising the water level of the Bet and two Chachra circles. The wells are only worked in the day time. In the upland circles the water-bearing stratum is good, but the wells are generally old and many of them cannot be worked full tides as the supply of water becomes exhausted. Even in the Khadir the Persian wheel is rarely used, the bucket being considered superior. The appliances of a bucket will cost about Rs. 17, and the annual expenditure may be taken at about the same sum, for while some parts of the apparatus last for several years, the rope and bucket, which cost Rs. 6 or 7, should be renewed twice a year if the well is fully worked. The cost of sinking a well is about Rs. 250 in the Khadir, Rs. 300 in the two Chachra circles, Rs. 325 in the Bangar, and Rs. 375 in the Bet. In the Southern Chachra bricks are cheap. Four bullocks are required to work a well all day and in the Bangar circle there are usually four for each well. In the other circles two are oftener employed, but of course a great deal depends on

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the means and industry of the cultivator. In the upland circles a good yoke of oxen costs about Rs. 80 or 90. The price has doubled in the past thirty years, and this has proved, and will prove, a hindrance to the extension of irrigation.

Irrigation.

In the Rúpar Dhaia the wells are deep and expensive to work, involving much labour to both men and cattle, but the water-supply is good and the irrigation of great value, especially for the wheat and sugarcane crops. The charas is used exclusively. Many of the wells have two runs and are worked with complete double sets of apparatus. Strong cattle are required, and have to be obtained from the great cattle raising country of Sirsa and Hissár. A good pair of well bullocks, fully grown, will cost at least Rs. 120 to 150, and being such valuable property they are very carefully looked after. It is a common practice for a number of villages to combine together to send down a party to the Hissár cattle fairs to buy up as many bullocks as are required, and they gratefully acknowledge the benefit it is to be able to do this without running the serious risk of thefts on the way back, which had to be encountered in former times.

Manure and rotation of crops.

The following description of the use of manure and the system of rotation of crops as practised in the district was furnished for the Famine Report of 1879 (page 256) :—

"On land constantly manured the average weight of manure per acre is 300 maunds ; on land occasionally manured 350 maunds per acre every fourth or sometimes every fifth year.

"Land cropped with wheat has generally lain fallow since the last rabi crop or on dry lands since the penultimate kharíf; it is ploughed very often, as many as eight times, and never less than five times. In October after ploughing, wheat land is 'closed,' as it were, with the *sohága, i. e.*, bushed and rolled and left till sowing time in November. For gram agriculturists are not nearly so particular ; the land is not ploughed often, and hard rice land is used. Barley is cultivated like wheat. Wheat and barley land is often cropped with sugar-cane and cotton afterwards, lying fallow after the rabi harvest in April till sowing time, which for cotton would be in Asár (June), or for sugar-cane till the following March, in which case the land will have had a rest of nearly a twelve month. After a gram crop the same land is generally cropped with rice and in the same way gram may follow rice. Where sugar-cane is grown, the land, as explained before, lies fallow all through the kharíf ; it is ploughed a number of times—more, even, than wheat land. In *báráni* land there is usually a two-harvest (*i. e.*, a whole year's) fallow before and after a cane crop. After ploughing in October the surface soil is closed up and smoothed across with the *sohága* for the entire cold weather, and in March the sugar-cane is sown ; after every successive shower of rain it is weeded and earthed up. Among kharíf crops, cotton land is ploughed in the cold weather, and it is sown in June. It does not particularly matter when the other kinds of kharíf crops, such as makki, Jowár, bájra, are sown, and the land does not require much previous ploughing.

"As regards rests to unmanured lands, wheat land is commonly cropped with *chari* at once after a wheat crop and then lies fallow for a whole year, and rice land and sugar-cane land also are generally left fallow afterwards, or during the cold weather season, though if there is an *early* crop of rice, owing to the favourable and seasonable rain, land cropped with rice is not unfrequently cultivated with gram ; but, except on *khadar* land near hill streams, gram on rice land is a catch crop. The only particular difference in treatment of manured and unmanured and irrigated and unirrigated land is, that irrigated land which has been manured will be ploughed much oftener than unirrigated land which has not been manured, but there will not be any material difference in the rotation or succession of crops."

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Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live Stock.

Manure and rotation of crops.

To add to this description it is only necessary to say that the ordinary peasant thoroughly understands the value of manure, especially for his irrigated lands. His difficulty is not so much that he will not use it, or dislikes the trouble, as that it simply is not to be had when once he has exhausted his slender share of the village heap. The one substance which lies at his door, and which caste prejudice forbids him to use is bone dust. A familiar sight at every Railway station is the pile of bones collected for exportation. The only use to which bones are put in the villages is for the decoration of the *Chuhro's* pig-stye, a very frequent object all over the district, much to the scandal of the worthy Muhammadan to whom the village pig (*bad*) is a constant eyesore.

Poppy.

Table No. XX. shows the area under each of the more important crops grown during the last five years with tahsil details for the year 1891-92. The whole conditions under which these crops are grown, the agricultural calendar followed, and the implements used by the peasant are described at great length in the Ludhiána and Karnál Gazetteer volumes and the account given there need not be repeated. The Ludhiána description applies accurately to corresponding parts of the northern tahsíls of Ambála, and the Karnál account to the south of the district. The two crops in Ambála which are less common in other districts of the Eastern Punjab are poppy (3,000 to 3,500 acres) and rice (70,000 to 125,000 acres). The poppy crop can only be grown with irrigation and requires high cultivation. It is only attempted by cultivators of the best class, and is grown best by Sáinís and Málís. With them it is a favourite crop as it occupies the ground only a short time, while the heavy manuring which land under poppy must receive enables them to grow a fine maize crop immediately afterwards. Notwithstanding the expense of the cultivation and the heavy extra tax levied on the crop under Excise regulations the profits realised are usually very large, and it is mainly from their poppy and tobacco that the Sáinís are able to make a fair living in spite of exceedingly small holdings which often average barely two acres per family.

Rice.

The rice grown in Ambála is of several kinds, both fine and common. Fine rice is planted out from a small plantation when the seedlings are a few inches high, while the commoner varieties are generally sown broadcast. The yield from fine rice is much the heavier of the two and the grain sells at least 20 per cent. dearer. The fine rice most generally grown is *ziri* or *chahora*. Irrigation is not usual in the case of *ziri*, and the crop is therefore liable to serious risks from a break in the rains, but when the rains are opportune the outturn is very large. *Chahora* is grown in the Neli circle of the Kharar tahsíl and in the Morni hills. The crop is irrigated by ducts from the Ghaggar or hill streams and is always highly remunerative, but the drawback in this case is that the tracts where it can be grown are very unhealthy and there is a difficulty in getting enough hands

Rice.

to cultivate properly. Altogether some 20,000 acres of fine rice are grown in the district as against 100,000 of common rice. The varieties of the latter are endless. Those most generally grown are *sati* (a coarse red rice) and *dholu*. The crop is never irrigated, and only does well about one year in four, when it gives good returns. In the other three years there is likely to be at least one in which the crop fails more or less completely from drought or floods, and it is always a capricious crop even at the best of times. There are large areas of very stiff clay soil in the southern tahsíls which are hardly ever cultivated with anything but rice, but where the clay is not hopelessly stiff or choked with coarse grass the rice crop may be followed by gram.

Morni hill crops; ginger, &c.

Many crops are grown in the Morni hills which are not found elsewhere in the district. The commonest are the cereal *mandua* (eleusine corocana), the pulse kulthi (dolichos uniflorus) and the tuber *kachalu* (arum colocasia). By far the most valuable of the hill crops are the edible sugarcane (ponda), and the ginger (zingiber officinalis). Ginger is an expensive crop to grow costing some Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 an acre for seed alone, but the gross produce is seldom worth less than Rs. 120 an acre and in a good year may fetch a much higher price. The crop requires high cultivation, and will probably be followed by rice in the next two years. It is grown in very small patches, as few families can afford the outlay or command the labour necessary for cultivation on a large scale.

Average yield of crops. Production and consumption of food grains.

The following table shows the average yield of the principal crops of the district as ascertained from a number of produce experiments carried out in the course of the revised settlement between 1883 and 1886. The yield is stated in sérs *pakka* per acre :—

Crop.	Tahsíl Ambála.	Tahsíl Kharar.	Tahsíl Rúpar.	Tahsíl Naráingarh.
Wheat	249	282	336	260
Gram	184	250	231	...
Mixtures of wheat, barley and gram	369	363	364	280
Fine rice	345	376	...	...
Coarse rice	290	...	333	350
Maize	371	476	470	398
Másh and mung	139	167	166	125

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Area standard and yield.

The Government standard of area now in force in the district is a *kacha* bigha of $\frac{5}{24}$ths of an acre or 1,008$\frac{1}{3}$ square yards. The zamíndárs themselves commonly use a somewhat smaller *kacha* bigha roughly equivalent to one-sixth of an acre. When stating the produce of their fields they always express it in terms of *kacha* maunds to the *kacha* bigha. The maund used by them contains about 16 sérs pakka and as the bigha they refer to is about one-sixth of an acre, an outturn of one maund to the bigha is roughly equivalent to 100 sérs *pakka* (206 lbs.) to the acre. The estimates of yield given above are averages struck from experiments taken in all parts of the tahsíl and with every variety of soil and season. A very fine wheat crop such as that grown in parts of the Rúpar Bet will yield as much as 700 sérs, say 22 bushels to the acre. On the other hand a large proportion of the area returned as under crop in the district is very poor, yielding perhaps 150 to 300 sérs to the acre. On a broad general average it would not be safe to estimate the outturn of wheat on the total area under crop in an average year at much above 250 to 300 sérs, or say 8 to 10 bushels, to the acre. The average consumption of food per head has been already noticed at page 40. It is believed to have been over-estimated, but on the figures given a rough estimate of the total production, exports and imports was framed in 1878, and it was stated (page 151, Famine Report) that an annual import of some 2,985,500 maunds of grain was required to supplement the local production, consisting of rice from across the Jamna, and of wheat, maize, gram, and other pulses from the Punjab. The total population of the district is now nearly the same as when that estimate was made. The estimate was based on a population of 1,035,488 as against 1,033,427 by the Census of 1891.

Causes of injury to crops.

If the crops are not carefully watched when ripening some considerable damage may be done by pigs and deer in the plains, and monkeys in the hills. These larger animals are however at any time much less destructive than the caterpillars and insect blights which attack the growing crops, and the white ants which infest the soil in many parts of the district, eating the roots and doing much injury to the rabi crops especially. Field rats only make their appearance occasionally. There was a perfect plague of them in 1883, a very dry year, and the damage done by them to the cotton crop was enormous. The rats climbed the plants just as the cotton was coming into season, destroying the cotton in the buds to get at the seed, and the fields were dotted over with little heaps of debris, but strangely enough there was hardly a sign of a return of the pest in later years Of calamities other than those due to animal life the most to be feared are floods and hailstorms. Frost does little harm except to cotton. If timely rain has fallen in June the cotton will have been sown at the proper season and the picking will be over by the end of December or the first week in January, before excessive cold sets in.

If however the rains are late and sowings cannot be effected till July the pickings go on through January and February, and the extreme cold will then do considerable harm to the crop. The crop is tolerably certain to be more or less of a failure unless sown by the 10th of July at latest, and every day's delay beyond that means serious loss in the outturn. Lightning is believed to have an injurious effect on crops coming into flower both in the spring and autumn harvests. Gram is said to be specially liable to this risk from the violent thunderstorms which are not uncommon in the early spring. The prudent farmer will insure himself from the risk by sowing a thin line of linseed round his gram fields, and the small blue flowers of the linseed may be confidently expected to protect the gram from injury much in the way that the necklace of blue glass beads hung round his pony's neck wards off the evil eye.

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Causes of injury to crops.

Khaki cotton experiment.

The cotton crop is of so much importance in the district that it is worth while giving a few figures showing the results of some experiments carried out with great care in 1887, with a view to ascertaining whether natural khaki coloured (nankin) cotton should be introduced as a new staple. Ten sérs of seed were sown in all, in two lots. Five sérs were sown on the 17th June in 2½ bighás, or 0·52 acres, of irrigated land at Oind in Rúpar, and five on the 5th July in 4 bighás, or 0·83 acres, at Kuráli in Kharar on unirrigated but manured land. The Oind experiment yielded 182 sérs of cotton in 19 pickings between the 1st November and 4th February, and the Kuráli experiment 148 sérs in 23 pickings between the 13th November and 21st February, giving an outturn of 350 and 179 sérs respectively per acre for irrigated and unirrigated land. The very much heavier yield in the irrigated land was due not so much to irrigation after the crop was sown, as to the fact that the command of water enabled the experimenter to sow three weeks earlier in the one case than the other. The total produce of 330 sérs *pakka* yielded the following results by ginning:—

	Cotton.	*Seed.*
Actual, in sérs	78	252
Equivalent per acre, in sérs	58	188

At the harvest prices then current the value of the gross produce was Rs. 31 per acre (Rs. 19 for cotton and Rs. 12 for seed), from which would be deducted at ordinary rates Rs. 3 for cost of picking and Rs. 6 for ginning, in addition to the cost of cultivation. The cotton was a fine, strong plant with good fibre, and made up well as coarse cloth, but the net result of the experiments was to show that the staple would not be popular. Government decided that it could not take the place of dyed khaki cotton for army purposes, and the zamíndárs themselves preferred the ordinary cotton of the country firstly, on account of the colour, secondly, because the nankin cotton took from 15 to 20 days longer to come to maturity,

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Khaki cotton experiment.

and thirdly, because ordinary cotton yields on ginning about one-third cotton to two-third seeds, as against one-fourth cotton to three-fourths seed with the nankin variety. These objecttions were undoubtedly fatal, and further experiments were not attempted. More recently experiments have been tried with Nágpur, Egyptian and American cotton, the latter with good results as regards outturn.

Arboriculture and forests.

Table No. XVII. shows the whole area of waste land which is under the management of the Forest Department. The following note on the forests of the district was kindly furnished by Mr. Down, of the Forest Department in 1883 :—

Kalesar Forest.

"This Forest in the Ambála district, consisting of 11,829 acres, is situated on the right bank of the river Jamna near the heads of the Western Jamna Canal, and about 32 miles north of the Jagádhri Railway Station. It is bounded on the north and west by the territory of the Rája of Náhan. on the south by the territories of the Rája of Náhan and of the Sardár of Kalsia and village lands of Khizrábád and Lála Bansi Lál, and on the east by the lands of Kalesar. The Kalesar Government Forest lies principally between two low ranges of Siwálik hills running west from the Jamna. The valley is about nine miles long and is narrow, being about 1¼ miles broad at the east end. and gradually decreasing towards the west. The forest in the valley is divided by a broad water-course called the 'Suk Ráu,' which carries off the drainage of both ranges into the Jamna.

"The growth in the valley is *sál* with a slight mixture of miscellaneous trees. The inward slopes, however, are ¾ miscellaneous and ¼ *sál barkli* (*Lagerstromia parviflora*) being very plentiful, though more so in the northern than the southern ranges. The outward slopes of both ranges are very precipitous. The Government forest also extends to the south of the southern range from the Jamna to the Chekan Ghât. The ground here, however, is composed of small low hills much intersected with water-courses, and the growth is poor. There is no bamboo in the valley, but the Burror and Nangal estates south of the southern range contain a large quantity, but of small size. *Babar* grass is plentiful all over the low hills. The principal trees at Kalesar are *sál*, *sein*, *sandan*, *barkli*, *ebony*, *dhaman*, *bahera*, *hurra*, *huldu*, *kachnár*, *bel*, *siris*, *khair*, *aunla*, &c., &c. The produce is at present insignificant. The soil is good in the valley as far as the Chekan Ghât, west of which it becomes inferior and mixed with reddish clay. Boulders exist for a great depth everywhere, even on the hills. The soil south of the southern range is very inferior.

"Government rights are absolute; but the Pathán jágirdárs of Khizrábád hold seven shares of Rs. 65 each in the gross revenue. Water is very scarce, and during the hot months is only found in two or three places. The *sál* in the valley is protected by fire conservancy.

Jagádhri plantation (reserve).

"This plantation, consisting of a long narrow strip of 200 acres, 3 roods and 15 poles, was commenced in 1868-69. It is composed entirely of *shísham*, and situated on the right bank of the Jamna about five miles from the Railway Station of of Jagádhri. It extends from near and below the railway bridge over the Jamna for about two miles down stream. The soil is good *sailába*."

Morni Forest.

In 1888 a proposal was made to constitute a reserved forest in the Morni tract in the interests partly of Government and partly of the Mír of Kotáha. Government was interested in the scheme in view of the protection of the hill sides from denudation, while it was suggested that the Mír, as the principal rightholder in the Morni jungles, would benefit by reservation in a large increase to the value of the forest products. In the report on the scheme submitted in October 1888 it was noticed that the existing forest growth, which is very dense in the higher ranges, is composed of miscellaneous scrub intermixed

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Morni Forest.

in the upper portions with Chil (Pinus Longifolia) and Chal (Conocarpus Latifolia). Lower down in the valleys the scrub is chiefly mingled with Sandán (Ougeinia Dalbergioides), Siris (Albizzia Stipulata), Sein (Pentaptera Tomentosa), Papri (Ulmus integrifolia), Kachnar (Bauhinia variegata), Khair (Acacia catechu), Biul (Grewia oppositifolia), Jingan (Odina wodier), Aonla (Phylanthus Emblica), Amaltas (Cassia Fistula), Sohanjna (Moringa Pterygosperma) and Bael (Aegle marmelos). There are no compact forests of Chil, but a fair number of these trees are found on the Morni range (east of Morni) and on the Nagal and Tipra Kothi ranges. In particular the trees are large and well grown in Bhoj Nagal below Tandok, while those on the Morni range are crooked and ill-formed, most probably in consequence of constant fires. Natural reproduction of Chil is excellent, and all that can be desired in places that have escaped fire. Low down in the valleys there are many fine Jaman (Eugenia Jambolana), Mahwa (Bassia Latifolia), Bahera (Terminalia Bellerica), Tun and Harrar trees. Large numbers of the latter grow in the cultivated fields of Bhoj Nagal, and yield a fair revenue of which the zamíndárs have hitherto taken by far the larger share. Creepers are running rampant, and doing much harm, especially the Maljan (Bauhinia Vahlii.) The Sal tree (Shorea Robusta) is found nowhere in these hills, and it is exceedingly doubtful whether it could be introduced. The attempt was recently made to raise trees from seed obtained from Philibhit. This was a complete failure, as was only to be expected, owing to the well-known difficulty in transporting Sal seed from a long distance. Under any circumstances the limit of the Sal tree is practically a few miles west of the Jamna. In the working plans of the Dehra Dun Forests it is prominently noticed that Sal cannot be grown further to the west on account of the excessive heat and dryness of the Punjab portion of the Sub-Himalayan range.

As regards the benefits arising to Government from a strict reservation it appeared likely that if it should be found practicable to close the low hills absolutely both from fire and grazing, a very marked improvement would take place rapidly leading eventually to diminution in the force of the hill streams. Rich lands in the plains would be protected from erosion, and Government would be saved heavy losses on account of land revenue remissions, and risk of damage to important lines of road and railway. Apparently this was the limit of the direct interest of Government in the scheme, and this interest applied to the lower hills only and not to the whole tract. Further good would be done indirectly by way of example in the event of any scheme however small being carried out successfully, but while the cost and trouble of reservation would fall on the Mír, he would, in the low hills at least, realise but a small portion of the ultimate gain. The scrub jungle which would grow over these hills would be invaluable as a protective covering, but would not be in itself a source of much

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revenue. Extension of cultivation would have to be forbidden absolutely, while even a moderate interference with existing rights of free grazing would meet with determined opposition from the people on whom the Mír depends for his revenue. Under these circumstances it seemed doubtful whether the Mír should be encouraged to undertake the closure of the low hills as a source of gain to himself. The case was altered if Government was willing to undertake the whole or part of the expense on its own account, but if Government was prepared to take direct action at all, it might do so more profitably in other parts of the range, where there has been greater denudation.

As regards the higher ranges of Morni and Tipra Government was not directly interested in the reservation scheme, except in so far as it would afford some guarantee against wasteful management in the event of the tract passing into inefficient hands. For protective purposes nothing could be better than the existing growth of dense scrub jungle covering nearly all the higher spurs. A careful examination of these hills showed that there is practically no erosion. There are occasional landslips, but even these are obviously due to natural defects in the hill conformation, and not to the undermining action of extensive torrents. The entire absence of drift wood along the beds of the streams within the hills, the moderate dimensions of their channels, the permanence of the terraced cultivation on even the steepest slopes, and the general depth and excellence of the soil are all alike evidence that no more effectual measures are required with a view to check the rush and volume of flood water. No clear instance of extensive damage was detected which could be directly traced to insufficient afforestation in these higher ranges. The volume of water carried down from these high hills must necessarily be large, but would not be appreciably lessened by stricter measures of protection than those already in force. It was noticed in every direction that it was not until the streams passed within the low ranges of the outer hills that they assumed the character of sand torrents causing so much destruction in the plains. The explantion seemed to be that the injury is due much more to the geological structure of these low hills than to the actual amount of flood water brought down to them from above.

The conclusion arrived at was that no large outlay on the forest would bring in any adequate return. The country is so rugged, and the scrub growth so dense that the cost of planting operations would be prohibitive. This conclusion was accepted after some discussion and Government eventually abandoned the reservation scheme in July 1890. The suggestions made for the improvement of the property, which could be carried out by the Mír independently of procedure under the Forest Act, noticed the advisability of systematic creper cutting; of encouraging the more extensive growth of the Harrar tree (*Terminalia chebula*) for the sake of Myrobalan fruit; of bamboo planting; of

Morni Forest.

protection from fires by the appointment of fire guards, and by stopping the practice of firing the trunks of Chil trees to extract the resin; and lastly of opening out the property by cutting small paths to improve communications. The following is a list of the more important trees growing in the Morni jungles:—

Used for building purposes and agricultural implements.	Lopped for fodder, but not used as timber.
Khair—Acacia Catechu.	Kachnar—Bauhinia Variegata.
Chal -Conocarpus Latifolia.	Kendu—Diosperos Mantana.
Sein—Pentaptera Tomentosa.	Keim—Stephegyne Parvifolia.
Shisham—Dalbergia Sissoo.	Dhamin—Grewia Tiliaefolia.
Sandan.—Ougeinia Dalbergioides.	Lasora—Cordia Myxa.
Tun—Cedrela Toona.	Karaunda—Carissa Diffusa.
	Maljan--Bauhinia Vahlii.
Used for building purposes.	Malkangni—Celastrus Senegalensis.
Chil—Pinus Longifolia.	**Miscellaneous trees.**
Jaman—Eugenia Jambolana.	Harrar—Terminalia Chebula.
Mahwa—Bassia Latifolia.	Aonla—Phylanthus Emblica.
Pipal—Ficus Religiosa.	Bael—Aegle Marmelos.
Papri—Ulmus Integrifolia.	Chilla—Cæsaria Tomentosa.
Padul—Stereospermum Suaveolens.	Keint—Pyrus Variolosa.
Pula—Kydia Calycina.	Sohanjna—Moringa Pterygosperma.
Kakkar—Pistachia Integerrina.	Simbal—Bombax Malabaricum.
Used for building purposes and also lopped for fodder.	Amaltas—Cassia Fistula.
Bor—Ficus Bengalensis.	Kamola—Mallotus Philippinensis.
Bahera—Terminalia Bellerica.	Tezbal—Xanthoxylum Hostile.
Ber--Zizyphus Jujuba.	Harsinghar—Nyctanthes Arbortristis.
Dhak—Butea Frondosa.	Dhai—Woodfordia Floribunda.
Siris—Albizzia Sipulata.	
Biul—Grewia oppositifolia.	
Jingan—Odina Wodier.	

Agricultural implements and appliances.

Table No. XXII. shows the number of cattle, carts, and ploughs in each tahsíl of the district as returned in 1892. The stock necessary for the cultivation of a small holding, say one of 10 acres, is, with the exception of the oxen, covered by a few rupees; a pair of ordinary plough bullocks may be bought for from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100, and the other implements would not cost more than Rs. 10. For well-land an additional expenditure of perhaps Rs. 220 is required for two pairs of bullocks and the well-fittings. More expensive bullocks are required to work the deep wells of the Rúpar Dhaia. Villages seldom have any large grazing areas. The cattle depend on stall feeding and wherever the soil is good the people find it pay better to grow fodder crops than to leave the land waste. The price of cattle has increased largely since 1860-61 in common with the general rise in the value of agricultural produce due to the opening out of the country by railway communications. The people are apt to complain of the increased cost of cattle, but their losses in this direction are much more than compensated for by the profits realised by the higher prices obtained for their crops and farm products. There is no evidence of disproportionate rise in the price of cattle, and as far as it goes the rise indicates a general

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growth of prosperity in the country rather than a diminution in the resources of the agriculturist. The breed of cattle is open to improvement, but the quality of plough bullocks used depends largely on the work required of them. It is useless to attempt farming in heavy clay soils, or where deep irrigation wells are worked, unless with strong bullocks costing Rs. 60 to Rs. 100 a pair. On the other hand it is bad farming for a man with a five acre holding of light alluvial soil to use such expensive animals, when half the price would be sufficient for the work required of them. The zamíndárs are quite alive to the advantages of the stronger breeds, and buy them up freely when really required, but for ordinary purposes the weaker home-bred cattle answer better than those imported because they have been accustomed to stall-feeding all their lives, and do not feel the change when suddenly cut off from the grazing in the open to which the finer cattle of the jungle tracts are accustomed. In common with most districts of the Eastern Punjab there is a strong prejudice in Ambála against the use of male buffaloes for ploughing or other farm work. It is tolerably certain that this prejudice will give way as soon as the people really feel the question of cattle supply to be a difficulty.

Government breeding operations; fairs

A few Government stallions have been kept in the district since 1868, but very little horse-breeding has been done till the last two years. A scheme has been recently developed for largely increasing breeding operations on the Wards' estates of the district and there are now twenty local stallions employed in addition to four provided by the Civil Veterinary Department. Of the local stallions eight are kept up by the District and Municipal Boards, two by Sardár Jiwan Singh and ten by other Sardárs who are Wards of Court. Altogether these twenty-four stallions supply 2,200 branded mares and there are in addition five donkey stallions for mule and donkey breeding. The Deputy Commissioner writes that many more stallions could be usefully employed, and that the number provided for locally will soon be thirty-five as the zamíndárs willingly take advances from Government for the purchase of stallions. Arabs which have broken down at racing or polo are being purchased and kept for serving mares at a fee of $1\frac{1}{4}$ rupees.

Experiments are also being tried in cattle and sheep breeding. Hissár bulls and Kathiawar cattle and nearly pure bred English rams and ewes have been imported on two Wards' estates and rams are being taken up by some of the neighbouring zamíndárs. The young stock promise well, but the sheep are not yet acclimatized.

There is now a salutri zillahdár in the district and also a salutri in charge of a new Veterinary Hospital. Castration is becoming popular. A horse and cattle fair was instituted in 1891 and is becoming a very popular institution. Government contributes Rs. 250 from Imperial Funds towards the expenses of the fair which is held at Ambála city in April. Rupees 500 are

contributed by Provincial Funds for prizes to horses, Rs. 1,200 by District Funds and Rs. 300 by private subscriptions, and in addition the District Fund now contributes Rs. 400 for prizes to cattle. Some 2,000 to 3,000 horses are at present brought to the fair. A cattle fair has also been recently started in the Jagádhri tahsíl for the last Saturday in every month.

Government breeding operations; fairs.

Other domestic animals.

Large quantities of pigs and poultry are kept in the district by Chuhras. The pigs are filthy feeders, but the flesh is in great demand among the lower classes. There is a large demand for poultry in the neighbouring hill stations. All through the summer months a string of banghiwalás may be seen carrying fowls up to the hills in baskets. The prices obtained there make the keep of poultry highly remunerative in Ambála.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES, AND COMMERCE.

Occupations of the people.

Table No. XXIII. shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report of 1881; and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same report. There are no corresponding figures as yet available for the Census returns of 1891, but the total population has not varied appreciably in the decade, and there is no reason to suppose that the figures would show any great change in the present distribution among the different classes. More detailed figures for the occupations of the people, without distinguishing males of over 15 years of age, are given in Table No. XVII, Part B. of the Census Report for 1891.

Principal industries and manufactures.

Table No. XXIV. gives statistics of the large manufactories of the district as they stood in 1892. Commercially and industrially the district is not an interesting one. Its manufactures are few and unimportant. Rúpar is famous for its production of small articles of iron-work, and Ambála for *darrís* (carpets). Coarse country cloth is woven in almost every village, but for local consumption only. Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

darris

"Considering the history and traditions of this district it is disappointing to find so few remnants of either Muhammadan or Hindu art still alive and in practice. At Sirhind and other places in the neighbourhood are unusually fine but little known examples of Pathán architecture, while some parts of the district are peculiarly sacred in Hindu estimation. At Ambála itself there is nothing to be seen but the large Military Cantonment. A Lucknow figure-modeller has established himself in the *bázars*, and produces small figures in terra-cotta, representing servants, *fakírs*, and other characteristic types. These are quite equal to the average standard of Lucknow figure-modelling. Basket-work in bamboo is a growing trade. Lady's work-tables, occasional tea-tables, flower stands and other fancy articles copied from European originals are the usual forms, in addition to baskets for native use. At Dera Basi and some

Terra-cotta.

Basket work.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

that the figures cannot be wholly relied on. The prices given are for cultivated land in rupees per acre:—

Prices, wages, rent-rates, interest.

Tahsils.	Sales.				Mortgages.			
	1850 to 1866.	1867 to 1876.	1877 to 1886.	Total.	1850 to 1866.	1867 to 1876.	1877 to 1886.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ambála ...	32	58	74	66	29	41	42	41
Kharar ...	18	61	108	69	29	69	66	66
Rúpar ...	21	77	99	87	60	70	72	72
Naráingarh ...	5	30	55	29	16	28	35	33
Jagádhri ...	12	27	40	32	18	29	29	29
Pípli ...	8	15	24	18	20	29	32	30

Labour.

The supply of day labourers is derived either from the *chamar* caste, or by temporary immigrants from Bikanir and Hariána. When employed in harvesting, labourers are paid in kind, receiving generally eight sérs of grain per day in the neighbourhood of towns, and five sérs in villages where labour is more plentiful and the necessities of the labourer smaller. Other agricultural labour is paid for in money at the rate of 2½ or 3 annas a day. Wages in kind seem to remain stationary, but money wages have doubled within the last twenty years. Since however the prices of food and necessaries of life have risen in almost the same proportion, it is doubtful whether the actual condition of the labourer is much better than it was in old days. Skilled labour is better paid in towns than formerly in consequence of an increased demand. Artisans (such as carpenters, smiths, masons) can earn from three to five or even six annas a day according to their ability.

Weights and measures.

The following is a list of the weights in use:—

Adhpaiya	= ⅛th sér.		*Dhaiséri*	= 2½	sérs
Paiya	= ¼th	„	*Tinséri*	= 3	„
Adhséri	= ½	„	*Chauséri*	= 4	„
Sér	= 1	„	*Panséri* or *vatti*	= 5	„
Derhséri	= 1½	„	*Dhari*	= 10	„
Doséri	= 2	sérs,	*Dhon*	= 20	„
			Man	= 40	„

Metal weights are in use for all except the last two. The weights are *kacha* weights. A *kacha man* is from 16 to 20 *pakka sérs*, 16 being the commonest rate.

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Weights and measures.

The following tables are also in use :—

Grain weigths.		*Gold and Silver weights.*	
5 Rupees' weight	= 1 *chittak.*	8 Grains of rice	= 1 *ratti.*
16 *Chittaks*	= 1 *sér.*	8 *Rattis*	= 1 *masha.*
40 *Sérs*	= 1 *man.*	12 *Mashas*	= 1 *tola.*

The following measures of length are in use :—

Ungal	= one finger breadth.	*Hath*	= elbow to finger tip.
Chappa	= breadth of four fingers.	*Gaz*	= about 2 *haths.*
Mutthi	= clenched fist.	*Kadam*	= 16 *chappas,* or a double pace of 54 to 57 inches.
Balisht or *biland*	= Span, thumb tip to little finger tip.		

Table of carpenters' and masons' measure :—

6 *Taswasis*	= 1 *Pain.*
2 *Pains*	= 1 *Adwani.*
2 *Adwanis*	= 1 *Tassu* or $\frac{1}{36}$th of an English yard.
24 *Tassus*	= 1 *Gaz.*

The measures of area are the *páo-bígha, adh-bígha. pauna-bígha, bígha,* and so on. Inside the village site they measure not by *kadams* but by *gaz.*

The ordinary unit of land measurement is the *kacha* bigha of 20 square *kadams* varying from 850 to 1,000 square yards in different parts of the district. In the Government records of first settlement land is measured by the *pakka* bigha of 3,025 square yards, but for the purpose of the new settlement a fixed *kacha* bigha standard has been set up of $\frac{1}{3}$rd the *pakka* bigha. In any case the bigha whether *kacha* or *pakka,* is divided into 20 *biswas.* In a few villages in the north of the district the zamíndárs use the kanal and marla standard common in the Punjab districts. In the Morni hills land measurements were made out at last settlement not by areas but by a local seed calculation known as *bij* and *tol,* the *bíj* representing nominally the rate of seed supposed to be sown in different soils, and the *tol* the corresponding area or gross weight of seed sown. Since 1888 the ordinary bigha standard of $\frac{5}{24}$ of an acre in force in the rest of the district has been introduced into this tract also.

Communications; Telegraph; Post.

The figures in the margin show the communications of the district as returned in Table No. I of the Administration Report for 1890-91 ; Table No. XLVI. shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowances; while Table No. XIX. shows the area taken up by Government for communications within the district.

Communications.	Miles.
Navigable rivers, Sutlej and Jamna ..	72
Railways	87
Metalled Road, *viz.*, District roads, Grand Trunk road, and Ambála and Kálka road	165
Unmetalled roads	491

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Communications; Telegraph; Post.

The Sutlej and Jamna (except within the hills) are both navigable for country craft throughout their courses within the district; through traffic on both these rivers is confined to certain portions only. The table in the margin shows the mooring places and ferries, and the distances between them, following the downward course of each river.

Rivers.	Stations.	Distance in miles.	Remarks.
Sutlej ...	Sarai	...	Ferry and mooring place.
	Awankot ...	4	
	Miáni	3	
	Rúpar	4	
	Chahilán ...	8	
	Mulána... ...	4	
Jamna ...	Bibipur... ...	...	
	Ráj Ghât ...	4	Do.
	Dika	6	
	Paubari ...	1½	
	Gumthála ...	5	

The Sutlej below Rúpar has seldom been open for navigation by boats since the opening of the Sirhind Canal, which draws off the great mass of the river water during the cold season. The canal is open for boat traffic during most of the year, and by giving notice beforehand arrangements can nearly always be made for the conveyance of travellers from Rúpar by boat to the North-Western Railway at Dauráha. The passage to Dauráha by country boat takes some eight hours as a rule. The journey up-stream takes much longer, unless a canal-steam launch should be available. Except during the rains the Jamna is crossed by a bridge of boats at Ráj Ghât.

The North-Western Railway from Sahéranpur towards Ludhiána runs through the district with downwards stations as follows:—

Sirhind to Sarai Banjara, 9 miles; Rájpúra, 6 miles; Simbhu, 7 miles; Ambála City, 6 miles; Ambála Cantonments, 5 miles; Kesri, 7 miles; Barára, 8 miles; Mustafábád or Unchachandna, 6 miles; Hingoli, 3 miles; Jagádhri, 7 miles. From Rájpúra there is a branch line to Patiála and Bhatinda, where a junction is effected with the Rewári-Ferozepore Railway.

The Delhi-Kálka Railway, opened in 1891, also runs through the district with stations as follows:—

Thánesar; Shahábád, (Karindwa), 14 miles; Ambála Cantonments, 12 miles; Dhulkot (for Ambála City), 5 miles; Lálrú, 6 miles; Ghaggar, 10 miles; Chandigarh, 9 miles; Kálka, 9 miles.

The main lines of metalled roads in the district are—(1) The Grand Trunk Road, which enters it from Karnál a few miles east of Thánesar, and runs nearly north as far as Ambála; from this point it turns north-west, and passes, a few miles further on, into Patiála territory. It crosses all the hill streams by bridges. The principal bridges are those of the Márkanda and the Ghaggar. Its total length within the district is 38 miles. (2) A cross road connecting Shahábád and Mustafábád *viâ* Adhoa. This road was metalled in 1866, but has not been kept in repair. (3) From Jagádhri to Chachrauli, the residence of the Chief of Kalsia. (4) The Ambála and Kálka

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Roads.

road (for Simla). This leaves the Grand Trunk Road four miles above the Ambála Cantonment, and runs nearly due north to Kálka, at the foot of the hills; distance 39 miles. The Ghaggar is crossed by a ford, 20 miles from Ambála; all other streams are bridged. A detention of a few hours sometimes occurs at the crossing after heavy rain in the hills. At most seasons however the river is easily fordable. The following table shows the principal roads of the district together with the halting places on them, and the conveniences for travellers and troops to be found at each:—

Route.	Halting Place.	Distance in miles.	Remarks.
Ludhiána and Kálka road, unmetalled.	Morinda ...	...	Unmetalled. Encamping-ground; police rest-house and a *kacha* sarai.
	Kharar ...	10	Unmetalled. Encamping-ground; sarai, with a rest-house for European travellers.
	Rurki ...	8	Unmetalled. Encamping-ground.
	Chandigarh ...	9	Last 4 miles metalled. Encamping-ground; road bungalow, P. W. D.; and a sarai.
Ambála and Kálka road, metalled.	Ambála Cantonments	...	Metalled road. Encamping-ground; regular barracks for troops stationed; dák bungalow; hotels, and sarai in the sadr bazar.
	Lálru ...	13	Encamping-ground; sarai with burj for European travellers; and P. W. D. road bungalow.
	Mubárikpur ...	9	Encamping-ground; and a P. W. D. road bungalow.
	Chandigarh ...	11	Encamping-ground; P. W. D. road bungalow; and a sarai.
Grand Trunk Road.	Bara ...	...	Encamping-ground; sarai with burj for European travellers.
	Ughána ...	13	Ditto ditto ditto.
	Moghal-ki-sarai ...	10	Ditto ditto ditto.
	Ambála Cantonments	11	Encamping-ground; dák bungalow; hotels and sarai.
	Shahábád ...	13	Encamping-ground; district officer's rest-house; P. W. D. road bungalow; and sarai.
	Pípli ...	13	Encamping-ground; sarai; P. W. D. road bungalow.
Ambála to Sahāranpur.	Ambála Cantonments	...	Encamping-ground, &c., as stated above.
	Shahábád ...	13	Encamping-ground, &c., as above.
	Adhoa ...	11	Unmetalled. Encamping-ground; P. W. D. rest-house.
	Chhappar ...	9	Encamping-ground; P. W. D. road bungalow; and a sarai.
	Jagádhri ...	9	Encamping-ground; tahsil and thana; district officer's rest-house; and a sarai.

There are also district unmetalled roads from Ambála city to Pihowa, 33 miles; Pihowa to Thánesar, 16 miles; Thánesar *viâ* Pípli to Ládwa, 12 miles; Ládwa *viâ* Radaur to Jagádhri, 20 miles; Jagádhri *viâ* Khizrabád to Kalesar, 22 miles; Khizrabád *viâ* Beláspur, Sadhaura to Naráingarh, 30 miles; Naráingarh to Manimájra, 29 miles; Manimájra to Kharar, 13 miles; Kharar to Rúpar, 18 miles; Ambála to Kála Amb, 29 miles; Ambála to Rúpar *viâ* Kharar, 45 miles. There are police and district rest-houses in several places.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Telegraph.

A telegraph line runs along the whole length of the railways, with offices at each station. There are also Telegraph offices at Shahábad and Tháńesar towns connected with Ambála Cantonment on one side, and Kaithal, Karnál and Dehli on the other. At Barara Railway station (North-Western Railway) a telegraph line branches off to Náhan in the Sirmur State. This line is also in communication with the Ambála Cantonment and city stations. At Jagádhri there is an office in communication with Ambála and Sahāranpur. There is also a telegraph line from Ludhiána to Simla *viâ* Rúpar, running along the Sirhind Canal from Dauráha to Rúpar.

Post.

Post.—The Post Offices are controlled from a Head Office in Ambála Cantonments. There are sub-offices or branch offices of the Imperial Post Office in the following places, at all of which Savings Bank as well as money order business, is conducted:—

In tahsíl Ambála.—*Ambála city and Railway Station, Barara* and Mulána.

In tahsíl Kharar.—*Kharar.*

In tahsíl Rúpar.—*Rúpar* and Morinda.

In tahsíl Naráingarh.—*Naráingarh,* Sadhaura and Shahzádpur.

In tahsíl Jagádhri.—*Jagádhri,* Bilάspur and Dádupur.

In tahsíl Pípli.—*Pípli,* Sanghaur, Ládwa, Shahábád and Thánesar.

There are 39 minor branch offices in the district at which money order business can be done. The branch offices are worked through the sub-offices, and some delay is unavoidable in the case of letters delivered or despatched from anything less than a sub-office. The sub-offices have been entered in italics in the list given above.

There are combined Post and Telegraph Offices at Ambála city, Rúpar, Jagádhri, Sháhábad and Thánesar.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

Section A.—General and Military.

Chapter V. A.

General and Military.

Executive and Judicial.

The Ambála district is under the control of the Commissioner of the Delhi division. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a District Judge, one European Extra Assistant Commissioner and two native Extra Assistant Commissioners. An Assistant Commissioner is posted in charge of the subdivision of Rúpar. Each tahsíl is in charge of a Tahsíldár assisted by a Náib. The village Revenue staff is shown in the margin. There are four Munsiffs in the district, stationed at Ambála, Jagádhri and Rúpar, with jurisdiction as follows:—

Tahsil.	Kánúngos and Náibs.	Patwárís and Assistants.
Ambála	4	72
Jagádhri	4	67
Kharar	4	78
Rúpar	4	71
Naráingarh	4	64
Pípli	4	75
Total ...	24	427

Munsiff, Ambála. / *Additional Munsiff, Ambála.* } Pargannás Ambála, Mullána, Naráingarh, Kotáha, Thánesar and Shahabad.

Munsiff Jagádhri.—Jagádhri, Mustafabad, Khizrabad, Sadhaura and Ládwa.

Munsiff, Rúpar.—Rúpar, Morinda, Kharar and Mubárikpur.

Criminal Police and Jails.

The executive staff of the district is supplemented by a Cantonment Magistrate, stationed at the Ambála cantonment, situated at a distance of four miles from the civil lines of Ambála. There are also nine Honorary Magistrates in the district exercising magisterial powers within the limits of their jágírs. The Honorary Magistrates of Shahzádpur and Bhareli exercise powers in some of the Government villages in addition to their jágír villages.

Ambála is also the head-quarters of the Ambála judicial division. The Divisional and Sessions Judge holds his Court in the Ambála cantonments.

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General and Military.

Criminal, Police and Jails.

The police force is controlled by a District Superintendent and two Assistants. The strength of the police force as given in the Police Report for 1892 is shown in the margin. In addition to this force, 2,242 village watchmen are entertained and paid by a cess upon the revenue of the villages. The

Class of Police.	Total strength.	Distribution.	
		Standing guards.	Protective and detective.
District (Imperial) ...	689	121	568
Cantonment	144	14	130
Municipal	88	...	88
Ferry police	9	...	9
Total ...	930	135	795

thánas or principal police jurisdictions and the chaukís or police outposts are distributed as follows:—

Tahsíl Ambála.—Thánas Ambála city and Mullána.

Tahsíl Kharar.—Thánas Kharar, Chandigarh, Mubárikpur and outpost of Manimájra.

Tahsíl Rúpar.—Thánas Rúpar and Morinda.

Tahsíl Naráingarh.—Thánas Naráingarh, Sadhaura and Ghari and second class outposts of Morní and Patwi.

Tahsíl Jagádhri.—Thánas Jagádhri, Biláspur and Chhappar.

Tahsíl Pípli.—Thánas Pípli, Shahabad, Thánesar, Radaur, Sanghaur, and Ládwa, and Biluch guard at Ismailabad.

There is a cattle pound at each thána and also at the outpost Patwi.

The Ambála district lies within the eastern police circle of the Province, with head-quarters at Lahore. Table No. II. shows some reduction in the police staff in recent years. This is due to the abolition of the Rúpar Central Gaol in 1882, on completion of the Sirhind Canal where the prisoners were employed on convict labour; to the reduction of some of the chaukís on the Grand Trunk Road, when the Delhi-Kálka Railway was opened in 1891; and to the transfer from Ambála to Karnál of the Pehowa thána in 1889.

The Biluch tribe is the only registered criminal tribe under the Criminal Tribes Act in the district, and their number on the register on the 31st December 1892 is shown in the margin. During the year 17

Tribe.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
Biluchís	287	...	...	287

Chapter V. A.

General and Military.

Criminal, Police and Jails.

were convicted of the following offences :—Absence without leave 16, other offences 1. They do not commit much crime in this district, but go to other districts, utilising the railway greatly in their expeditions. The crimes they are chiefly addicted to are burglary, dakaiti, and serious non-bailable offences. There are 624 male and 592 female Sánsís in the district. They are not registered, and are not accountable for much of the crime in the district. Cattle stealing is common throughout the Pípli tahsíl, among the Rájpút villages of the Mulláua parganna in Ambála, and among Rájpút and Gujar villages in Naráingarh, especially Parganna Kotaha. Some of the Ját villages of Rúpar and Kharar have a bad name for crimes of violence generally originating in disputes about land, and Sadhaura in Naráingarh is a well-known centre for professional forgers.

The people of the district are not addicted to much serious crime on the whole, but from a police point of view Ambála is a heavy district, from its large size and irregular formation; from the large number of separate police thánas, many of them not readily accessible at all seasons of the year; and from the way in which it is surrounded on all sides and intersected with Native States. Cattle stealing in the south of the district can hardly be kept within reasonable bounds without free use of the security sections of the Criminal Procedure Code. The people are apt to look on it in the light of a gentlemanly employment more than a crime, and even a village headman gains rather than loses influence by conniving at theft, if indeed he does not actually participate. It is very common for these cases to be settled summarily by the people themselves. The owner of the cattle makes enquiries, finds out where they have gone, and enters into terms with the thief paying a sum of money as ransom (*bunga*) for the return of his property. The police then hear little or nothing about the case unless one or other of the parties fails to act up to his engagement. If both parties keep their word honorably the incident ends without leaving bad blood. The matter is treated as a game and the loser consoles himself with the hope that he will some day have a chance of retaliating.

The District Gaol at head-quarters contains accommodation for 797 prisoners. This gaol relieves the smaller gaols in the southern portion of the Province when they are getting overcrowded or from other causes. This is one of the prisons of the Province in which prisoners for transportation to the Andamans collect. A new central gaol for Ambála is under contemplation and work has been started, but progress is for the present suspended pending final orders sanctioning the Ambála city water-supply scheme. The present gaol water-supply from a large well on the bank of a branch of the Tangri naddi is far from good, owing to risk of contamination by drainage from Ambála cantonments.

Revenue, taxation and registration.

The revenue collections of the district for the last ten years are shown in Table No. XXVIII, while Tables Nos. XXIX. XXXV. and XXXIII. give further details for Land

Chapter V. A.

General and Military.

Revenue, taxation and registration.

Revenue, Excise, Income Tax, and Stamps respectively. Table No. XXXIIIA shows the number and situation of registration offices. In all cases the comparison of statistics for a series of years is affected by the transfer to Karnál in 1889 of 89 villages with a total area of 137, 154 acres, a cultivated area of 45,500 acres, a population of 34,519, and a land revenue of Rs. 34,370.

Excise.

Central distilleries for the manufacture of country liquor were formerly situated at Ambála, Jagádhri, Kharar, Rúpar and Pípli. In the last five years they have been abolished every where except at Ambála city. Owing to the difficulty in putting down smuggling from the Sahúranpur district (where a much lower rate of still-head duty is imposed), or from liquor shops established in Native States just across the district border, and in suppressing illicit distillation within the district, godowns were opened at Jagádhri, Kharar and Rúpar in 1891. These depôts are supplied from the Ambála Central Distillery. They are worked by a wholesale vendor under an arrangement by which the liquor shall be sold, subject to a moderate maximum price per gallon of proof spirit. There is some difference of opinion whether the reduction of distilleries has been beneficial or not. The tendency is for cheap adulterated European spirits to compete unfairly with the country liquor, which is probably the less injurious of the two. Poppy cultivation is still carried on extensively in the district, subject to an excise tax of Rs. 2 an acre in addition to land revenue and cesses. The Deputy Commissioner writes that though the acreage under poppy has not fallen off so far, yet the crop is becoming less popular partly from the stringency of the regulations under which it is cultivated and partly from the difficulty of selling the opium at a profitable rate. *Bhang* grows wild in many parts of the district, particularly in the Jagádhri tahsíl. *Charas* is imported from Hoshiárpur and Amritsar. Siswán in the low hills of Kharar has now for some years ceased to be used as a trade route by dealers in *charas* from Yárkand. The trade was at one time considerable, but was finally killed by the seizure at Siswán of a large store of *charas* which was being imported illicitly into the district.

District and Local Boards.

Table No. XXXVI. gives the income and expenditure for the last five years from district funds, which are controlled by a Committee consisting of 124 members, of whom 81 are elected, 32 nominated and 11 *ex-officio*. The *ex-officio* members consist of the Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioners at the sadr station, the Tahsildárs of the district, Civil Surgeon, District Inspector of Schools, and Executive Engineer together with the Deputy Commissioner of the district as president. Table No. XLV. gives statistics for municipal taxation, while the municipalities themselves are noticed in Chapter VI.

The income from provincial properties for the last five years is shown below. The ferries, bungalows and encamping-

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General and Military.

District and Local Boards.

grounds have already been noticed at pages 94 and 95, and the cattle-pounds at page 98. Figures for other Government estates are given in Table No. XVII :—

INCOME FROM PROVINCIAL PROPERTIES FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

Source of income.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ferries with boat-bridges	7,306	...	...	...	...
Do. without boat-bridges					
Staging bungalows, &c.	786	950	1,035	1,236	978
Encamping-grounds, &c.	1,291	1,291	1,041	872	1,355
Cattle-pounds	990	791	1,148	1,129	1,114
Nazúl properties	...	...	...	...	...
Total ...	10,373	3,032	3,224	3,237	3,447

The income from ferries was transferred to the District Board with effect from 1888-89. The amount realized by ferries in 1891-92 was as follows :—

		Rs.
Sutlej ...	Rúpar-Miáni	1,260
	Malána-Chahilán	265
	Awánkot-Serai	1,410
Jamna ...	Rájghát	1,200
	Gumthala	240
	Dika-Paubari	760
	Total	5,135

Statistics of land revenue.

Table No. XXIX. gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collections. Table No. XXXI. gives details of balances, remissions and agricultural advances for the last ten years; Table No. XXX. shows the amount of

Chapter V. A.

General and Military.

Statistics of land revenue.

assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV. gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. The incidence of the fixed demand per acre cultivated, as it stood in 1891-92, is Re. 1-6-10. The incidence on the culturable area is slightly lower, but the returns do not show culturable areas correctly. There is really little culturable waste land anywhere in the district except in the Pípli tahsíl. The incidence of the revenue on the total area is Re. 0-14-4. The statistics given in the following tables throw some light upon the working of the settlement:—Table No. XXXI.—Balances, remissions and *takávi* advances. Table No. XXXII.—Sales and mortgages of land. Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA.—Registration. The instalments of revenue and the cesses are noticed at page 106.

Government lands, forests, &c.

Table No. XVII. shows the area and income of Government estates; while Table No. XIX. shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. The forests have already been noticed in Chapter IV.

Assignments of land revenue.

Table No. XXX. shows the number of villages, parts of villages, and plots, and the area of land of which the revenue is assigned, the amount of that revenue, the period of assignment, and the number of assignees for each tahsíl as the figures stood in 1891-92. The principal assignees have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section E, and details of the jágir assignments are given in the Appendix.

Education.

Table No. XXXVII. gives figures for the Government and aided, high, middle and primary schools of the district. The old high school is the Mission School at Ambála city. A new high school has been opened by Government at Jagádhri since July 1891. English is taught in the Municipal Board Schools at Ambála, Rupar and Jagádhri, and in the aided Mission Schools at Ambála city and cantonments. In addition there are 11 vernacular middle schools, six of them District Board Schools at Mullána, Biláspur, Naráingarh, Kharar, Mani Májra and Morinda, and the remaining five Municipal Board Schools at Sadhaura, Shahabad, Thánesar, Ládwa and Buria. There are 89 primary schools and seven girls' schools. The latter are situated at Mullána, Chudiála, Magarpura, Ráipur (in Naráingarh), Kharar, Bhareli and Rúpar. The district lies within the Delhi circle, which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Delhi. Table No. XIII. gives statistics of education collected at the census of 1891. The general system of indigenous schools has been described at pages 44 to 46. Some of these indigenous schools are now aided by District Funds.

Education of Government wards.

From 1866 to 1887 a special school was kept up at Ambála under the superintendence of an English Head Master for the sons of Sardárs of the district, especially those who were Wards of Court, and for the sons of such other native gentlemen of good social position as wished to enter the institution. Since the opening of the Aitchison College at Lahore, the Wards' School at Ambála has been given up. There are always a number of

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General and Military.

Education of Government wards.

Government wards in the district, owing to the large number of Sardár families described in Chapter III, Section E, and whenever the funds at disposal of the Deputy Commissioner as *ex-officio* guardian of the wards admit of it the boys are now entered at the Aitchison College, where they are given a good education under the close supervision of English officers. A general manager has been appointed to assist the Deputy Commissioner in carrying out the multifarious business connected with the wards' estates within Ambála. The present holder of the post, Rái Bahádur Dharm Naráin, is a pensioned Tahsíldár who has been closely connected with the district for upwards of forty years. He is an Honorary Magistrate for the whole district and an invaluable assistant in all matters connected with the wards. Some of the larger estates have paid managers under his immediate supervision.

Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the dispensaries of the district, of which there are six, as follows:—

1.	Ambála city	... Civil Hospital in medical charge of an Assistant Surgeon.
2.	Rúpar dispensary	... Ditto.
3.	Jagádhri dispensary	... Ditto.
4.	Thánesar dispensary	... In medical charge of a Hospital Assistant.
5.	Sadhaura dispensary	... Ditto.
6.	Kharar dispensary	... Ditto.

All are under the control of the Civil Surgeon.

Ambála leper asylum.

There is also a Leper Asylum at the head-quarters of the district under the superintendence of the American Missionary stationed here. The average number of yearly in-patients is 45 but the hospital now accommodates over 50 patients. The asylum was founded in 1856; the money for the buildings and for the support of the inmates being contributed mostly by officers in cantonments. It is situated north-east of the city and north of the Grand Trunk Road. The objects of the institution are to provide comfortable homes for lepers who have no other means of support than begging, and to prevent lepers from begging by the roadside and in the bazaar. It is not expected that their disease of leprosy will be entirely cured, but they are made more comfortable while they live by having good medical treatment for such diseases as can be cured, as fever, dysentery, &c., and by having good nourishing food regularly supplied, and suitable clothing. Early in 1892 a new men's ward was added to the asylum, containing a dispensary room and five other rooms accommodating ten lepers. During the last four years the asylum has been under the immediate care of a lady doctor connected with the American Presbyterian Mission, the Civil Surgeon giving assistance as required. Medicines were formerly supplied by the City Charitable Dispensary. They are now supplied by the Presbyterian Woman's Hospital which is

Chapter V. A.

General and Military.

Ambála leper asylum.

also under Miss J. R. Carleton, M. D. The figures in the marginal statement show the expenditure and number of patients for the past five years. The 1892 expenditure includes Rs. 1,959 expended on the new barrack and a well with fittings. Of this sum Rs. 1,321 were subscribed at a meeting on the occasion of the death of Prince Albert Victor, and the balance by the Superintendent of the Mission to lepers in India. The institution is deserving of the most cordial support from the general public.

Year.	Expenditure.	Patients.
	Rs.	
1888 ...	1,708	35
1889 ...	1,891	34
1890 ...	2,296	52
1891 ...	1,752	50
1892 ...	3,904	56

New hospitals.

A large hospital has been recently built for the City Charitable Dispensary, and will shortly be opened. The building has cost about Rs. 41,000, of which nearly half has been contributed by the District Board, Rs. 9,600 by the Municipality of Ambála, and the balance met from funds at the credit of the hospital. The building is a very fine one. A new dispensary is also being built at Rúpar.

Medical aid for women.

An interesting movement has been recently set on foot in Ambála for the supply of competent female medical attendance in midwifery cases for both rich and poor women. Subscriptions have been received and a proposal to start a "saddavarth" subscription not for money, but for flour, *ghi*, &c., has been warmly taken up. The house to house contributions in flour, *ghi*, &c., are sold and the scheme contemplates that the proceeds should be devoted to the purchase of food and medical comforts for indigent women before and after child-birth. The movement is spreading satisfactorily so far, and competent female attendants are being brought to Ambála from Amritsar and Dehli, while scholarships are being given to local *dhais* who attend lectures and midwifery classes.

Ecclesiastical.

There is a large church in the Ambála cantonment capable of seating more than 1,000 persons, which is reputed the finest in the Punjab with the exception of the Cathedral at Lahore. In the Sadr Bazaar there is a small church, frequented principally by Eurasians, and a church and school belonging to the American Presbyterian Mission. There is also a small church in the civil station belonging to the same Mission. In addition to the above, there are in the cantonment a Roman Catholic and a Presbyterian Chapel. There is a resident Chaplain at Ambála, and usually an Assistant Chaplain during the winter months; and there is a resident Roman Catholic Priest and a Presbyterian Minister.

Troops and cantonments.

The ordinary garrison of Ambála consists of two Batteries R.H.A., one British Cavalry Regiment, one Battalion of a British Infantry Regiment, one Native Cavalry and one Native Infantry

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General and Military.

Troops and cantonment.

Regiment. The strength of the garrison as it stood in 1892 is shown in the margin. In the hot season, however, it is customary to send up half the British Infantry Battalion to Solon, both on account of its better climate and lower temperature, and because the Infantry barracks at Ambála are not constructed for a complete regiment. For about four months in the cold season the troops from the hill stations in the Division, two complete Battalions, and two Mountain Batteries, in addition to the half Battalion from Solon, are usually brought down and encamped at Ambála for manœuvres. The Native Infantry Regiment quartered at Ambála is always one of the Pioneer Regiments of the Bengal Army. Ambála Cantonment is the head-quarter station of the Sirhind district.

Station.	Officers.	Non-commissioned officers and men.
2 Batteries R.H.A.,	10	314
1 British Cavalry Regiment.	28	602
1 British Infantry Regiment.	28	984
1 Native Cavalry Regiment.	10	625
1 Native Infantry Regiment.	9	912
Staff of District and Station, A.M. Department, Commissariat Military Works Department, &c., &c.	17	...
Total ...	102	3,437

Transport depôt.

Ambála is also the head-quarters of a Transport Depôt. The depôt keeps up 7 elephants, 250 hired camels, 628 pack mules, 102 draught mules, 234 gun mules, 60 army transport bullocks, and 400 siege train bullocks, including 200 placed at the Sahâranpur Remount Depôt. The elephants, camels, bullocks, 250 of the pack mules and 26 of the draught mules are attached to the depôt. The remaining animals are distributed among the regiments quartered in the station. For the rest any additional transport that might be required at any time for military purposes would have to be obtained through the interposition of the civil authorities. The Ambála cantonment is quite open on all sides, and is not provided with any fort or other means of defence. The water-supply is brought in by an aqueduct from some wells about seven miles north-east of cantonments.

Head-quarters of other departments.

The head office of the North-Western Railway is at Lahore, with a District Traffic Manager's Office at Sahâranpur. The Delhi-Kálka Railway is worked as part of the East Indian Railway system with a district office at Ambála. The portion of the Western Jamna Canal running within the district is under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Karnál Division, stationed at Dádupur (Ambála *viâ* Jagádhri). The Sirhind Canal within the district is worked by the Executive Engineer at Ludhiána, with an Assistant at Rúpar. Both canals are supervised by the Superintending Engineer at Ambála. The Grand Trunk Road within the district is under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Provincial Division, at Ambála cantonments, who has

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Head-quarters of other departments.

charge of all public civil buildings in the district, and is subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 2nd Circle, Punjab, also stationed at Ambála. The military buildings and cantonment water-supply works are under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Military Works, at Ambála, subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, Military Works, at Lahore. The Telegraph lines or offices of the district are controlled by the Assistant Superintendent, Telegraphs, at Ambála, and the Post Offices by the Superintendent of Mails at Kálka. Ambála cantonment is also the head-quarters of the Chief Superintendent of Telegraphs for the Punjab.

Revenue instalments and cesses.

The following table gives details of the instalments of land revenue and of the cesses, with the date and amount of each. The cesses are uniform throughout the district except that the village officers cess includes a charge for patwárís at Rs. 5-6-8 per cent. in Tahsíl Pípli and Rs. 4-11-0 per cent. in the rest of the district. The amount shown as land revenue is exclusive of assigned revenue, and of jagir commutation tax received by Government, while the latter item is included in the figures given in Table No. XXVIII. The cesses are calculated on the total land revenue inclusive of assignments :—

Tahsil.	Land Revenue.				
	1st Instalment.		*2nd Instalment.*		Total.
	1st December.	1st February.	15th June.	15th July.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ambála	35,350	35,350	35,339	35,340	1,41,379
Kharar	33,976	33,976	31,903	31,409	1,31,759
Rúpar	40,714	40,714	30,409	30,410	1,42,247
Naráingarh	26,356	26,357	24,970	24,970	1,02,653
Jagádhri	30,714	30,714	30,591	30,592	1,22,611
Pípli	39,028	39,028	39,203	39,203	1,56,462
Total	2,06,138	2,06,139	1,92,415	1,92,419	7,97,111

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General and Military.
Revenue instalments and cesses.

Tahsil.	Local rate at Rs. 10-6-8 per cent.					Village Officers' Cess.									
	1st Instalment.		2nd Instalment.		Total.	Patwari Cess. { at Rs. 5-6-8 per cent. in Pipli. at Rs. 4-11-0 per cent. in other tahsils.					Lambardar Cess at Rs. 5 per cent.				
						1st Instalment.		*2nd Instalment.*		Total.	*1st Instalment.*		*2nd Instalment.*		Total.
	1st December.	1st February.	15th June.	15th July.		1st December.	1st February.	15th June.	15th July.		1st December.	1st February.	15th June.	15th July.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ambála ...	6,122	6,123	6,054	6,054	24,353	2,775	2,775	2,706	2,707	10,963	2,959	2,960	2,886	2,886	11,691
Kharar ...	6,844	6,844	6,529	6,530	26,747	3,108	3,109	2,909	2,909	12,035	3,316	3,316	3,103	3,104	12,839
Rúpar ...	6,828	6,829	4,980	4,981	23,618	3,084	3,085	2,226	2,227	10,622	3,293	3,293	2,376	2,377	11,339
Naráingarh	5,105	5,106	4,841	4,841	19,893	2,314	2,315	2,159	2,160	8,948	2,487	2,487	2,288	2,289	9,551
Jagádhri	6,275	6,275	6,170	6,171	24,891	2,844	2,844	2,753	2,753	11,195	3,038	3,039	2,933	2,933	11,943
Pípli ...	6,204	6,205	6,227	6,228	24,864	3,254	3,254	3,213	3,214	12,935	2,973	2,973	2,935	2,936	11,817
Total ...	37,378	37,382	34,801	34,805	1,44,366	17,379	17,382	15,966	15,970	66,698	18,066	18,068	16,521	16,525	69,180

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Land Revenue Settlement.

SECTION B.—LAND REVENUE SETTLEMENTS.

Sikh revenue system.

In the days of the empire, the Ambála district formed part of the "*súbah*" of Sirhind. The revenue was then regularly assessed, but the statistics of the settlement are not procurable. Part were lost in the period of anarchy that preceded the consolidation of the Sikh power, and the rest were made away with by the jealousy of the Patiála Chief, who did not wish them to fall into the hands of the British Government. Among the Sikhs there was no such thing as an assessment. The almost universal system was to collect the revenue in kind from the person actually in possession. Two-fifths of the gross produce was the ordinary proportion which they took in the Cis-Sutlej States. But where the soil was very poor, or in special cases, where, for instance, the occupants were Sikhs, this rate was lowered to one-third or even one-fourth. In Jullundur the proportion was as high as one-half, but it did not usually exceed two-fifths in the Ambála district.

Regular settlement, Ambála.

Summary settlements of the land revenue were effected at various times for such parts of the district as lapsed prior to 1846; in the next year, 1847, the preliminary operations of a regular settlement were set on foot, under Mr. Wynyard, in the southern tahsíls of the district as then constituted. At first the proceedings of the Settlement Officer were much embarrassed by the doubtful nature of his instructions as to the assessment of the large tracts still in the hands of Sikh Chiefs, but this difficulty was removed by the further changes introduced in 1849. In 1853 the regular settlement operations were extended, under Mr. Melvill, to the northern tahsíls, and the settlement of the whole district, as then constituted, was completed and sanctioned in 1855. Mr. Melvill's settlement operations covered the whole of Tahsíls Rúpar and Kharar and Parganna Kotaha of Tahsíl Naráingarh; the jágír villages left unsettled by Mr. Wynyard in Tahsíls Ambála, Jagádhri and Naráingarh; and a revision of settlement in parts of these three tahsíls where Mr. Wynyard's assessments had been found too high. The only portion of the district as it then stood, that is exclusive of Tahsíl Pípli, which was not settled by Mr. Wynyard or Mr. Melvill was the Sulhar tract of 52 villages in the south-west corner of the Ambála tahsíl, which had passed to Government in 1843 on the lapse of the Kaithal State. These Sulhar villages had been dealt with by summary settlements in 1843 and 1846 and a regular settlement in 1847. The latter was much too high an assessment, and in 1853 it was revised by Mr. Bowring, the Deputy Commissioner, who remitted large balances and reduced the total by 33 per cent.

Regular settlement, Thánesar.

The Pípli tahsíl was as that time included in the Thánesar district, and was not attached to Ambála till 1862. In the Thánesar district, summary settlements were effected in each portion, as it came under British rule. The first regular settlements were made separately, in two Divisions, at distinct

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Regular settlement, Thánesar.

periods, and by different officers. The western, or Kaithal, portion (now in the Karnál district) was, for a short time after 1846, treated as a separate district, and was first brought under regular settlement in 1846 by Captain Abbott, whose proceedings began and ended within the year. This assessment, however, was never reported for sanction, doubts existing from the first as to its fairness. The portion of the district comprising the estates of Thánesar and Ládwa was first assessed by Mr. Wynyard. Here too doubts were soon raised as to the equity of the assessment, and in 1853 (Kaithal being by this time incorporated into the Thánesar district), a revision of assessment in the whole Thánesar district was entrusted to Captain Larkins, then Deputy Commissioner. His assessment was completed and reported upon in 1856. It soon appeared, however, that though Captain Larkins had granted considerable remissions, the assessment was still in parts too high, and further reductions were directed to be granted. This operation was carried out by Captain Busk, who reported the results in 1859. The assessment, however, was still too high, and the greatest difficulty was experienced in its realization. Accordingly, at the suggestion of Mr. Roberts, then Financial Commissioner, who pronounced the condition of the district to be a blot upon British administration, it was determined to effect another revision. This revision was reported by Captain Elphinstone in 1860; but was again pronounced unsatisfactory, and a further revision ordered. This was effected by Captain Davies, who reported its completion in 1862. The settlement was then finally sanctioned.

From 1862 onwards the subsequent revenue history of the whole district including Pípli has been uneventful, in the sense that no further instances of general breakdown occurred involving revision of the assessment. The era of high prices for agricultural produce set in about 1860 and thereafter the condition of affairs was changed The value of land ran up rapidly, and with it the credit of the landowning classes became very much better than it had ever been before. The consequence was that if a village got into difficulties, instead of clamouring for a reduction of assessment, as it would have done in the period 1850-60, it took the much easier remedy of going to a money-lender and parting with its land. It is not implied by this that glaring instances of over-assessment remained unnoticed in the subsequent 25 years during which the last settlement ran, but only that in judging of the work of the Settlement Officers of the past generation it should be freely recognised that their assessments were subjected during the earlier years to a very much more severe test than can now be applied.

Revised Assessment 1882-9.

The period for which the regular settlements were sanctioned expired about 1880, but proceedings for revision of assessment were not begun till 1882. The district again formed a divided charge. The northern tahsíls of Ambála, Kharar, Rúpar and Jagádhri were placed in Settlement charge of Mr. A.

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Revised Assessment 1882-9.

Kensington, while Tahsíls Jagádhri and Pípli were placed, together with a part of the Karnál district, under Mr. J. M. Douie. The new assessments were introduced from the following dates :—

Tahsíls Ambála, Kharar, Rúpar and Pípli, from	kharíf 1887.
Tahsíls Jagádhri and Naráingarh (excluding Morni), from	kharíf 1888.
Iláka Morni of Naráingarh, from	kharíf 1891.

The settlement of the Morni iláka was not begun until operations were nearly complete in the rest of the district, and the new assessment was delayed partly in consequence of the proposals for a forest reservation scheme in the tract, as described in Chapter IV, Section A. The net result of the new assessment for the existing Ambála district, excluding 89 villages transferred to Karnál in 1889, has been an increase in the land revenue demand by Rs. 1,68,751, of which Rs. 1,02,551 goes to Government and Rs. 66,200 to assignees. The total Government gain by new assessment including its share on account of commutation tax on the increased jágír revenue has been Rs. 1,11,392. These figures include a sum of about Rs. 6,000 which will not actually be credited until a few deferred or progressive assessments (chiefly in Tahsíls Jagádhri and Pípli) become due in later years. The existing gross assessment of the district (1891-92) is Rs. 13,83,601 including Government land revenue and sums payable to assignees of all kinds.

Assessment reports and memoranda on prices.

The grounds on which the new assessments were based have been stated in detail in the Assessment Reports prepared separately for sanction for each tahsíl before the new assessments were introduced. The reports were preceded in each case by a memorandum dealing with the subject of agricultural prices during the previous 40 years, and by a series of statements giving in detail the prices realised for principal articles of produce in each of these years for which separate figures could be obtained. The statements were arranged so as to show separately (1) the average prices reported in Government Gazettes or in Annual Revenue Reports, (2) the retail trade prices prevailing in the larger towns of the tract; and (3) the harvest prices actually realised by agriculturists in each tahsíl as shown by the traders' books in four or five large villages of the tahsíl. The subject of prices was dealt with by each Settlement Officer once for all in respect of the whole tract under his charge shortly before the submission of his first Assessment Report. The general conclusion for the Ambála district did not differ materially from that arrived at in the previous similar enquiries made in Ludhiána and Hoshiárpur. It was found that prices were fairly high during the period 1846 to 1850, which covered the period of conversion from payments in kind to payments in cash through the greater part of the district. It was on these high prices that the regular settlement was based. During the next

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Assessment reports and memoranda on prices.

ten years 1851 to 1860, prices were extraordinarily low, but on these nevertheless the revenue was paid. Taking the whole 15 years 1846 to 1860 to represent the prices by which the old settlement was supported, and comparing the average for this period with the average of continuous high prices during the next 25 years 1861 to 1885, it was found that in round numbers the value of raw produce had risen during the latter period by from 50 to 66 per cent. On the other hand it had to be considered that the rise in prices was not confined to the value of raw produce, but extended at least equally to the value of other articles on which the agriculturists depended for their living, particularly the wages of labour and price of bullocks. Further there was the indisputable fact that whatever the correct estimate of rise in prices might be the level had varied comparatively little during the previous 25 years. The people had, therefore, become accustomed to existing conditions for at least a generation, and any reduction in their present scale of living would be felt out of all proportion to the gains they might be making in comparison with the returns looked for by their fathers 35 years before.

It was felt that on these grounds alone it would be impossible to realise in the new assessments an increase of revenue at all proportionate to the apparently great rise in prices. In framing their proposals the Settlement Officers were also guided to a considerable extent by the orders issued in recent cases of revision in other districts, the general drift of those orders being in the direction of great moderation in the assessment of tracts at all comparable to Ambála. Again it had to be considered that Ambála is cultivated almost entirely by petty proprietors with holdings rarely averaging more than 8 to 12 acres, and frequently falling as low as 5; that the people were not really prosperous in any considerable part of the district outside the Rúpar and Kharar tahsíls, and were more or less heavily involved in debt throughout the southern two-thirds of the district; and that they had in many parts suffered severely from over-assessment in the earlier of the old settlements. Lastly there was the peculiar feature of Ambála that so much of the revenue is assigned in perpetuity to jágírdárs, who have, in the case of the larger Sardárs, much more frequently than not grossly abused their position, while in the case of the minor fraternities of pattidári jágírdárs the assigned revenue is split up into so many fractional shares that even a large increase of revenue would practically be frittered away to no purpose. The leading features of the revised assessment may now be stated separately for each tahsíl, showing the assessment circles into which the tahsíls have been divided for revenue purposes.

Tahsíl Ambála.

In the Ambála tahsíl no accurate subdivision of the tahsíl by assessment circles was found possible. The general character of the country is much the same everywhere, a level tract of land varying in quality from a light sandy loam to the stiffest

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Tahsíl Ambála.

and most unworkable clay fit for little beyond rice cultivation. There is practically no irrigation. Villages vary in prosperity roughly according to the greater or less proportion of stiff clay (Dákar) soil contained within their limits, and this was taken as the basis for such subdivision as was attempted. The great mass of the tahsíl was thrown into one large Seoti or loam circle, containing 186 out of the total of 304 estates. The remaining poorer villages, usually containing a larger proportion of Dákar soil, were thrown into two minor circles lying mainly in detached blocks in the two pargannas of Ambála or Mullána, styled Dákar Ambála and Dákar Mullána, comprising 61 and 57 estates respectively. Even in the Seoti circle, however, it is rare to find a village of any size free from some Dákar area, and as far as the assessment was concerned it would have been almost as easy to deal with the tahsíl as a whole without any assessment circles at all. The increase in cultivated area since last settlement had been unimportant, amounting to 4 per cent. only in the Seoti circle, 8 in Dákar Ambála, 12 in Dákar Mullána, and an average of 6 for the tahsíl.

In the Seoti circle owners cultivate 71 per cent. of the land and occupancy tenants 8½. Of the owners somewhat over two-fifths are good cultivators, mostly Hindu Jats. The rest are all indifferent or bad cultivators, and one-third of the circle is held by Rájpúts of the worst class as tillers of the soil. Rather over 3 per cent. of the cultivated land had been sold, and 15 per cent. mortgaged since regular settlement and about half the sales and three-fifths of the mortgages are to professional money-lenders.

In the Dákar Ambála circle iron clay soil is greatly in excess. Rice is one of the principal crops, but the rice lands are poor and choked with coarse grass, and the crop is very uncertain. The circle includes the majority of the Sulhar villages of which the previous over-assessment has been already noticed. Owners cultivate 80 per cent. of their lands, and a full three-fourths of the circle is in the hands of good cultivators. This is the one strong point of the circle, but against this must be set the unusually thin population, and the fact that land transfers since last settlement aggregated 19 per cent. of the cultivation. Half the sales and two-thirds of the mortgages are to money-lenders, which is a very high proportion for a tract with a Jat population, the present evident want of prosperity in the tract being probably due in some measure to the extravagant demand made on the people from 1843 to 1853. It is unlikely even now to prosper unless some turn of fortune in the future should cause the whole face of the country to be altered through a change in the course of the Ghaggar stream on one side or the Umla on the other. Changes of the kind have occurred in a few villages of this part altering their land almost at once from coarse clay soil to good alluvial loam.

The Dákar Mullána circle is a very hopeless bit of country to assess. Four-fifths of the land is in the hands of bad cultivators mostly Chauhán Rájpúts. There are some prosperous

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Raien villages in the circle and the proprietors there manage to make a good living and pay a fair revenue, but the Rájpúts can at best barely hold their own with good land, and break down miserably where the conditions of the soil are such that farming will only pay at all with hard work and energy. Many of their villages are in a very bad way and the land transfers already cover upwards of 30 per cent. of the circle.

The following table shows the result of re-assessment in the Ambála tahsíl:—

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase by new Assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p	Rs.	
Seoti	1,56,455	1 5 5	1,73,896	1 7 10	17,441	11
Dákar Ambála ...	24,926	1 0 2	25,050	1 0 3	124	...
Dákar Mullána... ...	32,685	0 15 8	35,483	1 1 0	2,798	8½
Total Tahsíl Ambála ...	2,14,066	1 3 7	2,34,429	1 5 6	20,363	9½

Tahsíl Kharar.

The Kharar tahsíl comprises a densely populated tract of country surrounded on three sides by the Native States of Patiála, Kalsia and Nálagarh. The greater part of the tahsíl is compact in shape, but there are three small isolated blocks of villages separated from it by native territory. It includes 391 estates covering 369 square miles, of which 235 only are cultivated, the large waste area being partly made up by a considerable stretch of barren hilly country in or under the Siwálik range. It is divided into six assessment circles, but by far the larger proportion of the revenue is paid by the rich tract of good alluvial loam occupying the centre of the tahsíl. This tract has been styled Seoti, as in Ambála, though for convenience it has been split up into two classes, Seoti I and II, comprising 121 and 130 estates respectively, the distinction in the case of Seoti II being that it covers the belt of slightly inferior land immediately adjoining the Ghar hilly circle of 51 estates. In the south of the tahsíl there is a small tract of either stiff clay, or poor undulating *kalari* soil, covering 50 estates classed as Dákar villages, and the rest of the tahsíl is made up of two small highly irrigated circles. Of these the Charsa circle in the west includes 13 estates with fine well irri-

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Tahsíl Kharar.

gation, and the Neli on the south-east 26 estates lying in one block saturated with excessive irrigation by *kuls* from the Ghaggar. As between themselves the Seoti and Dákar circles represent about the same comparative fertility as the corresponding circles of Ambála, but both are far richer and more prosperous than their Ambála counterparts. The remaining three circles, Ghar, Charsa and Neli are quite unlike anything in Ambála, and there is nothing at all corresponding to the Neli anywhere in the district except in a few villages, also irrigated from the Ghaggar, within the Morni hill tract. Taken as a whole, and excluding the Neli, the Kharar tahsíl is strong, prosperous, healthy and densely populated, nearly two-thirds of the tahsíl being owned by good cultivators, principally Jats.

The soil in the first class Seoti circle is almost all a good loam and 70 per cent. of the land is owned by good cultivators, mostly Hindu Jats. The second class circle lies nearer the hills, and the soil is decidedly inferior in point of fertility though even here much more uniformly good than in the Seoti of Ambála. The second class circle is weaker than the first in its proprietary body also, upwards of half the land being owned by bad cultivators. Taken together these two circles are in a sound state of prosperity, and the villages are (comparatively speaking) not heavily involved in debt, the areas sold and mortgaged being somewhat under 3 and 9 per cent. respectively, while more than half these transfers are transactions among the agriculturists themselves.

The old assessment of the small Dákar circle was very unequal, and though the villages were not actually unprosperous there was little ground for substantial enhancement of revenue. The 13 estates of the Charsa circle were assessed extraordinarily low at last settlement in comparison with villages of the Dhaia circle in the Rúpar tahsíl, which they most nearly resemble. There had moreover been an increase of 15 per cent. in cultivation in this circle, and the number of good wells from which it takes its name makes land very valuable. The previous light assessment seems to have been due to an oversight at regular settlement, and the only question now was how far it was possible to take the large increase of revenue which would be required to bring the assessment up to the prevailing standard.

In the Ghar circle there had been an increase of 40 per cent. in the cultivated area, and as against this the gross assessment actually imposed shows an enhancement of Rs. 5,048 amounting to nearly 26 per cent. of the old demand. Out of this sum however Rs. 650 represents a nominal assessment on two new jágír villages Bír Ferozri and Bír Babupur established by the jágirdár of Bhareli after the last settlement, in a large waste tract not previously assessed. Deducting this sum as not really affecting the actual demand on the villagers of the circle, the true enhancement is somewhat under 23 per cent. In some of the

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smaller villages where the increase in cultivation had been very large the new revenue is from 50 to 100 per cent. higher than the old. In all such cases the rate per acre is still far below the sanctioned rate of Rs. 1-1-0 for unirrigated land.

The assessment of the Neli circle presented unusual difficulties owing to the peculiar physical features of this very unhealthy tract. One-tenth only of the cultivation is unirrigated, including some Ghar lands in the hills. The remaining nine-tenths, including the whole plains cultivation, is irrigable by ducts from the Ghaggar. Unlimited water-supply has led to perpetual over-irrigation, and the tract is notorious for its dense vegetation and deadly climate. Upwards of 60 per cent. of the cultivated land of the circle has been transferred to outside purchasers since last settlement, and in most of these transactions the price realised was very low, quite out of proportion to the high assessment of the circle which falls at an all-round rate of over two rupees an acre. The rapidity with which land was changing hands early attracted attention. Mr. Melvill returned to the district as Deputy Commissioner in 1858, and made a careful inquiry. The conclusion he came to was that the circle had certainly been assessed by him rather heavily, in some cases much too high, but that this was not the cause of the break down. He regarded it as inevitable that the villages should die out owing to the deadly climate, and gave it as his deliberate opinion that the faster villages were bought up by capitalists the better. Government would at any rate then have some security for the payment of its revenue, and the people would be no worse off than before. He did not recommend revision of assessment, even where his revenues were admittedly too high. A reduction would not really benefit the villages, and the speculating purchasers must take their chance of loss. There was no difficulty in finding purchasers, and it was for them to count the cost, while it was suggested that the mere fact of the risk of loss might lead them to exert themselves to improve the condition of the tract.

This statement of the case was accepted at the time with some hesitation, and it was finally determined to let matters take their course. The result is much what was expected. The villagers have perhaps held their own rather better than was hoped, but large areas have been bought up by speculators, who are nearly all non-resident and, if they may be believed, have nearly all lost by their investments. Under these circumstances the new assessment of the circle has in the first instance been sanctioned for five years only, in case it should in the meanwhile be found possible to devise some scheme for improvement of the tract. The period of five years has recently been extended to see the result of an experiment now being tried in a neighbouring somewhat similar tract of the Kalsia State.

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Tahsíl Kharar.

The following table gives the results of the new assessment in Tahsíl Kharar:—

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase by new assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Seoti I	89,704	1 13 1	1,02,580	2 1 3	12,876	14⅓
Seoti II	64,145	1 7 0	75,382	1 11 0	11,237	17½
Dákar	22,069	1 3 2	23,856	1 4 9	1,787	8
Chaisa	8,051	1 3 6	10,950	1 10 7	2,899	36
Ghar	19,435	0 13 11	24,483	1 1 6	5,048	26
Neli	18,595	2 1 5	20,441	2 4 10	1,846	10
Total Tahsíl Kharar ...	2,21,999	1 7 8	2,57,692	1 11 5	35,693	16

Tahsíl Rúpar.

The Rúpar tahsíl is a small subdivision in the extreme north of the district, comprising 386 villages with a total area of 288 square miles of which 182 are cultivated. It contains a great variety of soil and physical features. Generally speaking, and excluding the Ghar hilly tract which is similar to the corresponding Kharar circle, it may be said that the country is healthy and prosperous, with good loam soil and a large area of rich alluvial soil. Even in the fine uplands, however, there are some blocks of coarse clay soil and large tracts of sandy land in irregular patches following roughly the old or present courses of destructive torrents from the hills, while the large riverain tract along the Sutlej comprises land of every quality from the best to the worst in the district. The assessment circles here follow well defined natural divisions and are substantially the same as fixed at last Settlement. The Bet river tract includes 144 estates and the Ghar hilly circle 48, while there is a small Ghar-Bet circle of 23 villages lying partly in the Ghar and partly in the Bet, which need not perhaps have been separately demarcated. The remaining Dhaia circle of 171 villages covering the whole southern half of the tahsíl includes the uplands and some undulating lowlands which it was not worth while to throw into a separate circle, though their physical features are different from the true uplands. The Dhaia is on the whole a very fine bit of country with good irrigating wells all over the western half of the circle. It is in the hands of a strong Jat population and pays over three-

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Tahsíl Rúpar.

fifths of the revenue of the tahsíl. The tahsíl is densely populated throughout, the pressure varying from 700 to over 1,000 per square mile cultivated in different circles. Small holdings are consequently the rule, but the people are full of resource, and always seem to have plenty of money to spend on their land or more often waste in gambling in the Law Courts. The construction of the Sirhind Canal since last settlement, with its head works at Rúpar, has done much both to alter the face of the country for good and bad, and to sharpen the wits of people who earned much money in one way or another during the long series of years in which the works were in progress. The canal runs for 14 miles through the tahsíl, though there is practically no canal irrigation till much lower down on its course.

The Bet circle has suffered much from incursions by the Sutlej since last settlement. The tract subject to annual inundation, known as the Mand, is extremely poor soil, a huge, dreary waste of sand and river-bed, with large islands mostly covered with coarse grasses and stunted tamarisk bushes. It includes two-fifths of the entire Bet circle, but less than a seventh of the cultivation, and all of this of the poorest description, except for occasional plots growing sugar-cane one year, and perhaps washed away the next. The permanent land is ordinarily a rich alluvial plain of great fertility. The exceptions are a bad tract of coarse clay soil on the west, by the sources of the Budha Nala, and the numerous sandy wastes marking the former beds of the hill-streams. Parts of the circle are extraordinarily rich, but much cut up by these streams, and by the canal protection works, and, on the whole the circle is not very prosperous. The people have lost heavily by the river on one side, and the canal on the other, and they now no longer get rich silt washed down from the Dhaia. Holdings are extremely small especially in a cluster of highly assessed Saini villages lying to the north of Rúpar. The actual river frontage is mostly in the hands of Mussalmán Jats, a well-behaved but somewhat feeble set of men largely dependent on advances from money-lenders to enable them to hold their own in the constant struggle with the caprices of the river.

The Dhaia circle is cultivated to the extent of 84 per cent. by the proprietors themselves, and as fully 70 per cent. of the land is in the hands of strong Jat communities it is in a flourishing condition. The proportion of cultivated land transferred is 2 per cent. for sales and 8 per cent. for mortgages, but the villages really heavily involved are a few owned by Rájpúts and other inferior cultivators. The Jats are always ready to buy up land, and out of the total transfers only two-fifths of the mortgages and less than one-fifth of the sales have passed out of the hands of the zamíndárs. The only inferior part of the circle comprises some 25 villages bordering on the actual Dhaia bank where a constant struggle has to be kept up against the inroads of sand. There are fine wells all through the tract, 15½ per cent. of the cultivation being irrigated on an average of three years, and

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probably at least 25 per cent. in a year of drought. The villages are strong, and the country looks decidedly prosperous, the greatest possible contrast with the southern portions of the district. In those lowlands, which have, for convenience, been included in the Dhaia circle, the soil is a lighter loam corresponding more with the Seoti circles of the Kharar tahsíl. The water level is here much higher, and irrigation little needed. The well irrigation in the Dhaia is of much importance, especially for the wheat and sugar-cane crops, which on the average occupy 53 per cent. and 19 per cent. respectively of the irrigated area. It is these two crops which make the irrigation so valuable, and in particular, the contrast between the irrigated and unirrigated wheat in the true uplands is most marked. The wells are laborious and expensive to work, and the Jats habitually contrast their own life unfavourably with their neighbours' in the loam villages of both Kharar and Rúpar, and there is no doubt they have to exert themselves more. At the same time they are more than repaid by the heavier yield, and greater certainty of cropping.

In the Ghar circle as in Kharar there had been a large increase (of 28 per cent.) in the cultivated area since last settlement. The two circles are very similar and are assessed at the same rate of Rs. 1-1-0 an acre for unirrigated land. The Ghar-Bet circle is a small tract in which the villages lie mostly in parallels running down from the hills to the Bet, along the narrow strip of country between the low hills and the Sutlej in the extreme north of the tahsíl. The Ghar lands are generally poor, while the Bet lands are liable to losses from diluvion from hill streams, and holdings are almost as small as in the regular Bet.

The following table gives the results of the new assessment in Tahsíl Rúpar:—

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase by new Assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Bet	54,230	1 14 6	59,452	2 1 5	5,222	10
Dhaia	1,21,050	1 12 0	1,43,288	2 1 1	22,238	18
Ghar-Bet	8,399	1 5 5	9,551	1 8 4	1,152	14
Ghar	10,813	0 13 9	13,405	1 1 1	2,592	24
Total Tahsíl Rúpar	1,94,492	1 10 9	2,25,696	1 15 0	31,204	16

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The Naráingarh Tahsíl.

The Naráingarh tahsíl comprises in all 326 estates covering 435 square miles of which 214 are cultivated. These total figures include the tahsíl proper with 312 villages, and the Morni hill tract which is technically part of the tahsíl, and administered as such. The southern two-thirds of the tahsíl is fairly level, and has generally a close resemblance to the adjoining Ambála tahsíl. The remaining third is all more or less up and down, as in the wilder parts of Rúpar, Kharar and Jagádhri, and for distinction may be called hilly, though there is little real hill area. Throughout this curious tract the land lies in great waves or ridges, running at right angles to the Siwálik range. The soil is light and stony, offering no resistance to the rapid drainage, and the whole tract is in consequence intersected with sandy torrents and deep ravines. This perpetual ravine cutting is a prominent feature in many parts of the Ambála district, and in Naráingarh especially constitutes a serious difficulty to the farmer.

The villages with broken ground adjoining the hills have been thrown into a Ghar circle as in Rúpar and Kharar, here containing 81 estates. A small separate circle, called Darrar, containing 28 estates, was formed in the centre of the tahsíl, where the peculiar ravine formation already referred to is most prominent, and the rest of the tahsíl is made up of a large Seoti circle with 163 villages and a small Dákar circle in three detached blocks covering 40 villages. The Morni iláka was divided into two circles, Ghar and Pahár, following a well recognised local distinction. The Ghar circle there included the 4 Bhojes of Rájpura, Kudána, Paunta, Palásra and 4 villages of Mator, in 63 hamlets lying in the low country adjoining the Ghar circle of the plains, while the Pahár circle of 109 hamlets comprised, as its name implies, all the higher mountain ranges of the tract.

The Seoti circle covers three-fifths of the cultivated area of the tahsíl and pays two-thirds of the revenue. By the figures there had been a small falling off in cultivation, but this was more than neutralised by revenue reductions for diluvion. The tract is not prosperous. A fifth of the land has already passed out of the hands of the owners by sale or mortgage, and there is a huge debt not yet secured on the land, but which will inevitably lead gradually to a wholesale transfer to the money-lending class. Moreover a very large percentage of the mortgages is to professional money-lenders, as opposed to agriculturists. In Rúpar and Kharar nearly half the land mortgaged remained in the hands of the agriculturists, and even in Ambála a third, but in Naráingarh less than a fifth, showing that the people are more than ordinarily wanting in capital. At the same time the want of prosperity can only be attributed to the unthrifty habits of the great mass of the landowners. Good cultivators hold a bare third of the circle, and there are only two strong groups of villages. Together these hold about a tenth of the land. Sixty-two per cent. only of the land in the circle is cultivated by the

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owners themselves, but 13 per cent. is in the hands of occupancy tenants, who generally belong to the better class of cultivators and make much more of their opportunities than the owners.

The Naráingarh Tahsíl.

The main characteristics of both Ghar and Darrar circles are a large increase of cultivation, amounting to 31 per cent. in the former case and 38 in the latter, mostly of a very inferior character, a rough, shingly or sandy soil, much over-grown with thorn bushes and cut up by ravines, and a poor population mostly Gujars. An unusually large proportion of land (18 per cent. in the one case and 13 in the other) has been sold since last settlement. Most of these sales represent entire villages made over by the zamíndárs to the Mír of Kotaha at a nominal price in the famine year 1860-61. Mr. Melvill noticed that the Mír was very anxious at last settlement to have himself registered as sole proprietor of all his *Jágír* villages in the plains. His claim was not tenable to the full extent, but the proprietary right was awarded to him in three villages, and small *biswadári* dues in the remaining 15. In the pressure of hard times the Gujars shortly afterwards sold to him their entire rights in eight of these villages and large shares in four more. The transactions attracted some attention at the time, both on account of their extent and the small amounts paid by the Mír, but as they were found to be voluntary no objections were eventually taken by the Deputy Commissioner. There is no doubt that the villagers made a very bad bargain, but on the whole they have not much to complain of. The villages are situated in an extremely poor tract, and the Mír has given the sellers right of occupancy in the lands then cultivated on payment of low grain rents. He has proved a good landlord to them, and they are probably better off than in their former position as proprietors though the village revenues were exceedingly light.

In the Dákar circle cultivation and population have practically remained stationary since last settlement, and the latter, falling at 510 per square mile cultivated is somewhat sparse as things go in the district. The circle is not a well-defined subdivision and its 40 villages were most unequally assessed at last settlement. Rájpúts hold about 40 per cent. of the land and Málís 9. The Málís manage to get on well enough, but Rájpúts break down hopelessly before the special difficulties of a stiff clay soil, and many of the villages are so completely in the Bania's hands that it is difficult to know what to do with them.

The Morni hill settlement.

The Morni hill iláka consists of 93 square miles including 25 square miles of low, broken, hilly ground more or less closely resembling the adjoining Ghar circle of Naraingarh. These lower hills are of friable sandstone almost bare of vegetation, and the few villages dotted about the tract are very similar in their general characteristics to the villages of the wilder parts of the Ghar circle except that they lie at a higher level and are more completely cut off from communication with the plains. The remainder of the iláka is made up of two main ridges of much higher hills ranging up to nearly 5,000 feet, including

The Morni hill settlement.

between them the valley of the Ghaggar. The whole tract is held in jágír, and the jágírdár has extensive rights in waste areas. The cultivated lands are owned almost entirely by Kanets, Brahmans and Gujars in the proportion of about 60, 24 and 16 per cent. respectively. Holdings are small, averaging 4 or 5 acres, over two-thirds of the land being cultivated by the proprietors themselves, and the rest by tenants paying as a rule little if any rent beyond the Government demand for revenue and cesses. The 8,000 people inhabiting the tract live comfortably enough after the simple fashion of a hill population, consuming their produce almost entirely at home, the only exports being a little ginger, sugar and rice. They depend entirely on their cattle and crops. There are no manufactures and even cotton cloths and blankets are imported from the plains. About 2 per cent. only of the cultivated land has been sold at an average price of Rs. 20 an acre, and about 5 per cent. mortgaged at the rate of Rs. 25. Somewhat over half the sales and mortgages are to money-lenders, but there are generally special reasons accounting for the fact that a man had parted with his land. There is comparatively little floating debt, and considering their small requirements, the people may be considered prosperous. They lead a somewhat hard life, but are on the whole better off and very much more contented, than the residents in the plains of Naráingarh. The old assessment in Morni was very light, much below the standard then adopted elsewhere in the district. Until 1888 the tract had never been properly surveyed for revenue purposes. No village records of a suitable kind had been prepared, and practically the operations now undertaken were those of a first regular settlement. The increase in assessment was in consequence higher here than in other parts of Ambála, falling at 49 per cent., or at 56 per cent. including an addition to the revenue of Rs. 329 on account of the fruit of the *harrar* trees (*terminalia chebula*) in Bhoj Nagal. The arrangement now made in respect of these trees has been that the zamíndárs should, in return for the payment of Rs. 329 a year, receive full right to the fruit of all Harrar trees of the Bhoj, whether standing in their cultivated lands or in the forest jungle.

The figures below give the results of reassessment in tahsíl Naráingarh :—

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase by new assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Seoti	1,05,375	1 5 10	1,23,115	1 9 6	17,740	17
Ghar	21,887	0 13 3	27,379	1 0 6	5,492	25
Darrar	8,182	0 11 4	10,315	0 14 3	2,133	26
Dakar	20,718	1 6 2	22,726	1 8 4	2,008	9½
Morni	5,370	0 12 5	8,348	1 3 6	2,978	56
Total Tahsíl Naráingarh	1,61,532	1 2 10	1,91,883	1 6 4	30,351	19

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Tahsíl Jagádhri.

In the Jagádhri tahsíl three great natural divisions can be recognized. The first, covering less than one-tenth of the whole surface, consists of the sandy uneven "Kandi" along the skirts of the hills and the broken "Ghar" tract, honey-combed with ravines, on the borders of Naráingarh. The rest of the tahsíl is about equally divided between Khádir and Bangar.

Six assessment circles were formed. The Kandi and the worst part of the Ghar were united in one circle, the whole being called for convenience "Kandi." Except in the extreme east near the Jamna, the Siwáliks present to the south an abrupt front, pierced by long gorges from which sandy and boulder strewn torrents emerge into the plains. The hill area possessed by British villages is as a rule small. The Kandi estates proper have a poor, sandy and uneven soil, and boulders often lie close to the surface. The torrents do much damage. The Ghar lying to the west of the high bank of the Som valley, and traversed by the Sukhar, Sadadeni, Adáwa, and Sarusti streams, consists of sandy hills, sprinkled with boulders, torrent beds, and ravines, mixed with stretches of fairly level land. It is impossible without riding over the country to form any conception of its strange appearance. The flat lands are often productive, but they are year by year being encroached on by the ravines. Cultivation is carried on under great difficulties. The clearing of the *dhák* and *karaunda* jungle, which abounds near the hills, is a heavy task. Boulders often give much trouble to the plough-man and in some villages water for man and beast is scarcely procurable after the torrents have run dry. Moreover, the wild animals manage to secure a large share of the crops. The population consists mostly of Gujars, who are in some of the villages hardworking and well-to-do.

The Khádir was divided into three circles: the Som Khádir, the Northern Jamna Khádir, and the Southern Jamna Khádir. The first includes the villages between the Som and Boli torrents, and 10 or 11 estates between the Boli and the canal. The soil is usually an easily worked fertile loam mixed with *dahr*, which is sufficiently light to bear two crops in the year. To the east of the Boli there is a good deal of stiff clay, but most of it is canal-watered, and yields fine rice in the autumn, and barley, gram, or masri, or mixed crops of these grains, in the spring harvest. The population is a miscellaneous one of Jats, Gujars, Kaláls, Málís, and Raiens. The part of the Jamna Khádir lying to the north of the Som and between the canal and the river is very inferior to the rest. The surface is cut up by wide river beds, and destructive floods are common. The soil is a very poor grey-coloured sandy loam, and there are often boulders close to the surface. Where it is not sandy and stony, it is too often damp and foul with weeds. The popula-

Tahsíl Jagádhri.

tion consists of Gujars. The Southern Jamna Khádir is generally flat, and the soil is an easily worked productive loam. An exception must be made in the case of the lands flooded by the river, and of some lowlying estates near Buria, which are situated between the canal and a drainage channel, and are consequently liable to be water-logged. Rájpúts form the bulk of the agricultural population; but there is a large admixture of Gujars, Jats, and Kambohs. The river for some years back has been steadily cutting into the best part of the circle.

The Bangar was divided into two circles: the Bangar and the Dahr. The first forms the backbone of the tahsíl. In the north-west it runs up into the ravines of the Ghar; in the south-east the drainage into the canal is rapid, and the surface is often sloping and broken, and the land poor and sandy. On the other hand, some of the villages in the west of the circle near the Rakshi have a stiffish soil with a large admixture of clay. But, as a rule, the soil is a rich loam, containing a large but not excessive amount of sand, easily worked and yielding a good return to the husbandman. The land is not very level, except to the south of Jagádhri, but the slopes are gentle and do not interfere much with the success of cultivation. The Dahr lies to the west of the Bangar, and is traversed by the Chautang and the Sarusti. The surface is flat. The loam soils contain less sand than in the Bangar; but they are not difficult to work, and are very productive. There is a fertile strip of flooded land, which forms the valley of the Chautang. But the distinctive feature of the circle is the large amount of rice land (dahr), only cropped in the autumn harvest, which gives heavy returns in good and next to nothing in bad years. To the east of the Sarusti the dahr is lighter than to the west of that stream, where it consists of a stiff black clay. Rájpúts predominate in the Dahr, and Jats and Rájpúts in the Bangar circle.

The tahsíl is not in a prosperous condition. Since 1859 no part of Jagádhri can be said to have suffered from a heavy assessment, but the landowners have become deeply involved in debt, and nowhere in the Punjab has the money-lender a stronger grip on the land. Rájpúts, Gujars and Banias own half the land, and strong cultivating castes only a quarter. The new assessment of the tahsíl was the subject of much discussion, Government being inclined to hold that a considerably higher revenue should be taken than that proposed by the Settlement Officer. The arrangements finally accepted are shown in the following table:—

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Tahsíl Jagádhri.

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase by new Assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Kandi	9,880	0 13 1	12,163	1 0 1	2,283	23
Dahr	43,367	1 2 6	52,820	1 6 8	9,453	21
Bangar	75,068	1 3 9	90,874	1 7 10	15,806	20
Southern Jamna Khádir	35,361	1 7 9	39,620	1 10 11	4,259	11
Northern Jamna Khádir... ...	13,352	1 1 2	16,108	1 4 8	2,756	19
Scm Kádir ...	28,358	1 1 1	32,785	1 10 8	4,427	16
Total Tahsíl Jagádhri ...	2,05,386	1 3 9	2,44,370	1 7 6	38,984	19

The amount shown as new revenue in the above table includes deferred assessments amounting to Rs. 1,656, of which Rs. 1,190 are on account of progressive assessments falling due in 1893-94, and Rs. 466 on account of protective leases for wells.

The Pípli tahsíl.

The Pípli tahsíl as now constituted covers 559 square miles, and includes a great variety of soils and agricultural conditions. It is traversed by four hill streams and their affluents, whose influence on the tracts through which they flow is widely different. Four strongly marked natural divisions can be recognized. Between the Jamna and the canal is a small flat river Khádir of the ordinary type. A narrow strip of Bangar, with good soil and abundant well irrigation lies between the canal and the Rakhsi. The country between the upper course of the Umla and the Márkanda is a rich alluvial tract in which almost every acre of land is under the plough, and where the crops, although raised without any artificial irrigation, are

The Pípli tahsíl.

fairly secure. The rest of the tahsíl is marked by the abundant growth of dhák jungle, and the whole tract in which it abounds is called the "Chachra." The Chachra which stretches from the border of Jagádhri on the one side and beyond that of the Pehowa pargana on the other, is by no means of a homogeneous character. The country lying between the Rakshi on the east, the Sarusti and the Ládwa and Shahabad road on the south, and the Betan and Linda nállas on the west, is a tract of good natural capacities, with a fairly fertile soil. Water is sufficiently near the surface to make irrigation easy. Sugar-cane is grown in nearly every village, and wheat can be raised without artificial irrigation. The crops, especially the rice, which is a very important staple here, are always most uncertain, and the part of the tract which is flooded by hill streams is very unhealthy. It cannot be said to have prospered since last settlement, but there is no reason why it should not do so with proper revenue management. This part of the Chachra was formed into a separate assessment circle and called the Northern Chachra. The country to the south and west, with Thánesar as its centre, is cursed with an unhealthy climate, with hill streams whose floods are most capricious, and with a strong soil which requires an abundant rainfall, which it very often fails to get. Rice is the great autumn, and gram the great spring staple. Wheat can rarely be raised in unirrigated land, and very little sugar-cane is grown. This circle, which has been called the Southern Chachra, was greatly over-assessed at regular settlement. No subsequent revisions have put it right, and it has been a by-word for steady decay for the last thirty-five years. Five assessment circles have accordingly been formed, the Khádir, the Ládwa Bangar, the Northern and Southern Chachras, and the Márkanda Bet.

Population has declined in the tahsíl and the cultivated area expanded to only a small extent. In the tahsíl as a whole there has been a marked falling off in the number of wells. In the Southern Chachra especially the contraction of irrigation has been very great, and this is one of the most striking signs of decay in that unfortunate tract. Holdings are often very small in the Khádir and the northern part of the Markanda Bet. Taken all round the tahsíl is far from prosperous and has suffered much from previous over-assessment from 1850—62. On these grounds a comparatively small increase of revenue was taken in Pípli. The details are given in the following table. The sum shown as new revenue includes about Rs. 4,000 which was arranged to become due in the form of progressive assessments partly in 1892, and partly in 1897. Many of these progressive assessments were in villages acquired in whole or part by new Máli settlers under the circumstances described on page 49. The Mális were treated liberally by the Settlement Officer, as the future of the two Chachra circles depends on the continued immigration of these industrious husbandmen:—

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The Pípli tahsíl.

Assessment Circle.	Revenue before revision.		Revenue now imposed.		Increase or decrease by new assessment.	
	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per acre cultivated.	Amount.	Rate per cent.
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	
Bet Márkanda	84,302	1 0 3	95,120	1 2 4	+10,818	+13
Khádir	25,784	1 5 1	27,960	1 6 11	+ 2,176	+ 8
Bangar	39,323	1 5 11	41,570	1 7 2	+ 2,247	+ 5
Northern Chachra ...	46,401	1 1 6	51,110	1 3 4	+ 4,709	+10
Southern Chachra ...	31,217	1 6 0	26,900	1 3 1	− 4,317	−13
Total Tahsíl Pípli ...	2,27,027	1 2 6	2,42,660	1 3 10	+15,633	+ 7

Result of new Assessment or whole district.

The ultimate result of the new assessment for the whole Ambála district as it now stands is an increase in Government land revenue by 15 per cent., in revenue paid to assignees of all kinds by 12½ per cent., and of nearly 14 per cent. in the total. The details by tahsíls are shown in the following table. Government has further received an immediate increase of Rs. 8,841 in the increased commutation tax paid by jágírdárs on their assigned revenue, but this gain has been balanced by the subsequent assignment of a sum not exceeding Rs. 8,500 a year in payment of the inámdár or zaildár class constituted under the orders specified on page 52, and by the remission (since 1891) of the commutation tax hitherto paid by the Mír of Kotáha on the revenue derived by him from the Morni hill tract (page 71) :—

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Result of new Assessment for whole district.

Tahsil.	Revenue before revision.			Ultimate Revenue by re-assessment.			Increase by new assessment.			Total Government gain by revision including the increase to jágír commutation.
	Khálsa.	Assigned.	Total.	Khálsa.	Assigned.	Total.	Khálsa.	Assigned.	Total.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ambála	1,27,262	86,804	2,14,066	1,40,800	93,629	2,34,429	13,538	6,825	20,363	14,349
Kharar	1,12,741	1,09,258	2,21,999	1,30,796	1,26,896	2,57,692	18,055	17,638	35,693	20,349
Rúpar	1,19,456	75,036	1,94,492	1,42,041	83,655	2,25,696	22,585	8,619	31,204	24,350
Naráingarh	86,970	74,562	1,61,532	1,01,965	89,918	1,91,883	14,995	15,356	30,351	17,016
Jagádhri	1,00,733	1,04,653	2,05,386	1,22,516	1,18,377	2,40,893	21,783	13,724	35,507	23,236
Pípli	1,44,936	82,091	2,27,027	1,56,531	86,129	2,42,660	11,595	4,038	15,633	12,092
Total Ambála District ...	6,92,098	5,32,404	12,24,502	7,94,649	5,98,604	13,93,253	1,02,551	66,200	1,68,751	1,11,392

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Assessment rates per acre.

The tables given in previous pargaraphs show the incidence of revenue, under the old and new assessment, on the total cultivated area of the assessment circles or tahsíls. Different rates were fixed at both settlements for the different classes of soil. It is unnecessary to give the details of the revenue rates of the first settlement, as the practice of the time was to divide tahsíls for assessment purposes into a large number of circles, and to apply a great multiplicity of rates, or more strictly speaking to give long tables of rates which the Settlement Officers were supposed to have applied. As a fact they did not themselves adhere to their rates closely, and the detail given was little real guide to the character of the assessment. The following tables show the principal rates per acre cultivated sanctioned at the revised settlement :—

Tahsíl.	Assessment Circle.	*Irrigated.* By wells.	*Irrigated.* By tanks or kuls.	*Unirrigated.* Loam lands.	*Unirrigated.* Clay lands.	*Unirrigated.* Sailáb.
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
AMBALA.	Seoti	4 0 0	..	1 7 6	...	...
	Dákar Ambála	2 8 0	...	1 0 0	1 0 0	...
	,, Mulana...	2 8 0	...	1 0 6	1 0 6	...
KHARAR.	Seoti I ...	4 8 0	...	2 0 0	...	...
	Seoti II ...	4 8 0	2 5 4	1 10 0	...	...
	Dákar	4 0 0	...	1 4 0	1 4 0	...
	Charsa... ...	3 8 0	...	1 8 0	...	...
	Ghar	5 0 0	...	1 1 0	...	...
	Neli	...	2 5 4	1 2 0	...	...
RUPAR.	Bet	5 0 0	...	2 2 0	...	1 4 0
	Dhaia	3 12 0	...	1 12 0	...	...
	Ghar-Bet ...	3 0 0	{ Bet { Ghar	} 1 12 0 } 1 1 0	} ...	...
	Ghar	4 0 0	...	1 1 0	...	...
NARAINGARH EXCLUDING MORNI.	Seoti	3 0 0	...	1 9 0	...	...
	Ghar	...	2 4 0	1 0 0	...	...
	Darrar ...	...	...	0 14 0	...	...
	Dákar	...	2 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	...
JAGADHRI.	Kandi	...	...	1 0 0	...	...
	Dahr	3 12 0	2 12 0	1 7 0	0 15 0	1 12 0
	Bangar ...	3 12 0	2 0 0	1 7 6	1 0 0	2 0 0
	Southern Jamna Khádir.	} 3 12 0	2 0 0	1 11 0	1 9 4	{ 2 0 0 { 1 2 0
	Northern Jamna Khádir.	...	...	1 5 0	1 4 0	1 0 0
	Som Khádir ...	...	...	1 8 0	...	...
PIPLI.	Bet Márkanda...	2 12 0	...	1 0 0	1 2 4	1 2 4
	Khádir ...	2 8 0	...	1 12 0	1 5 4	1 5 4
	Bangar ...	2 10 4	1 12 0	1 10 0	1 2 0	0 14 0
	Northern Chachra.	2 8 0	1 10 0	...	1 1 0	0 12 0
	Southern Chachra.	2 4 0	1 12 0	...	0 12 0	0 12 0

Chapter V, B.

Land Revenue Settlement.

Assessment rates per acre.

The rates given above represent these adopted for guidance by the Settlement Officers after making certain changes in the assessment required by the orders of Government in the case of the Seoti and Dákar circles of Naráingarh and all circles except the Kandi of Jagádhri.

Morni revenue rates.

In the Morni hill iláka a more elaborate series of rates was prepared based on a well-known local classification of soils. Land in these hills is known as *kulahu, obar* or *khil,* the kulahu being irrigated (by streams), the obar covering all level or terraced cultivation, and khil the rough jungle cultivation. Obar land is further subdivided into obar I, which includes only highly manured and terraced cultivation, and obar II, which includes the outlying fields from which comparatively poor crops only are obtained. The revenue rates sanctioned for these different classes of soil were as follows :—

Circle.	Irrigated.	Obar I.	Obar II.	Khil.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Morni Ghar	3 8 0	1 4 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
Morni Pahár	4 12 0	1 8 0	0 14 0	0 5 0

The khil land is brought into cultivation by burning the forest jungle and mixing the ashes with the soil. A few poor crops are harvested and the land is then either abandoned altogether for years, or laboriously worked up into terraced fields, which may eventually yield a fair crop under regular cultivation. It was found that much damage had been done to the hillsides in the past by reckless firing of the jungle, and in order to stop the practice it has been arranged that while existing khil cultivation should be assessed on its merits at the low rate of five annas an acre, all fresh khil obtained by jungle firing after 1891 should be penalised by the levy of a prohibitive rate at Rs. 4-12-0 an acre to be levied as additional fluctuating assessment.

Alluvion and diluvion.

In the case of lands subject to the action of rivers or streams the following rates are now prescribed for the annual alluvion assessments. The particular rate to be applied depends on the quality of the soil for the time being, and is determined primarily by the nature of the crops grown during the year :—

(1) For the Jamna river villages—

(*a*) In Pípli and the Northern Jamna Khádir circle of Jagádhri—

	Rs. a. p.	
Highest...	1 4 0	an acre.
Middle	0 14 6	"
Lowest	0 8 0	"

Chapter V, B.

Land Revenue Settlement.

Alluvion and dilu-vion.

(b) In the Southern Jamna Khádir circle of Jagádhri—

	Rs.	a.	p.	
Highest	1	8	0	an acre.
Middle	1	0	0	"
Lowest	0	8	0	"

(2) For the Sutlej river villages of Rúpar—

	Rs.	a.	p.	
For good sugar-cane land	2	8	0	an acre.
For ordinary lands highest	1	8	0	"
For ordinary lands middle	1	0	0	"
For ordinary lands lowest	0	8	0	"

In the case of both the Jamna and Sutlej waste lands, fit for grazing, are assessed at the rate of one anna an acre.

In the case of villages subject to the action of hill streams or sand the revenue is remitted on cultivated land wholly destroyed by torrents. Where the land is materially injured, but not wholly destroyed it is assessed at half the revenue rate fixed for that land, or for the village, at the revised settlement. Similarly land on which the revenue has been remitted or which was unassessed at settlement, and subsequently cultivated owing to the action of streams, may be assessed at full or half rates according to its quality.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES, AND CANTONMENTS.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

General statistics of towns.

At the census of 1891, all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all head-quarters of districts and military posts were classed as towns. Under this

Tahsíl.	Town.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Ambála ...	Ambála city ...	26,856	14,494	12,362
	" cantt. ...	51,016	31,764	19,252
Jagádhri ...	Jagádhri ...	13,029	6,917	6,112
	Buria ...	6,809	3,459	3,350
Naráingarh ...	Sadhaura ...	10,445	5,308	5,137
Pípli ...	Shahabad ...	11,473	6,104	5,369
	Thánesar ...	6,111	3,611	2,500
	Ládwa ...	4,011	2,175	1,836
Rúpar ...	Rúpar ...	8,693	4,663	4,030

rule the places shown in the margin were returned as the towns of the Ambála district. The distribution by religion of the population of these towns and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Tables Nos. IV and V. The remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions, and public buildings; and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures wherever figures are available.

Ambála town. Description.

The town of Ambála lies in north latitude 30° 21′ and east longitude 76° 52,′ and contains a population of 26,856 souls with an addition of 1,422 residents in civil lines. It is the head-quarters of the Ambála district, and is situated in the open plain three miles to the east of the Ghaggar. The city itself is unwalled, and consists of two portions known as the old and new town. The latter has sprung up since the location of the cantonments, and consists of a main street, straight and about 30 feet wide, which was laid out by Sir George Clerk when Political Agent. In the old town the streets are as usual narrow, dark and tortuous. The principal streets are paved

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Ambála town. Description.

with *kankar*, and drained by open side-drains. The water-supply is obtained from wells sunk in close proximity to four large tanks situated on the south side of, and outside, the town. All the other wells have dried up since the diversion of the Tángri stream which formerly ran through the town, and the water-supply is consequently very deficient. Several projects have been discussed at various times for remedying this evil, and two have been tried and failed. It is now in contemplation to construct an aqueduct from wells to be sunk near Andesra in the Patiála State about six miles from the city. The intention is to carry out a water-supply scheme similar to that which has been successfully devised for Ambála cantonments. The scheme has been many years under discussion, and considerable difficulty has been experienced in bringing it to maturity, but the project is now in an advanced stage and will shortly be carried out. Rupees 1,16,000 have been subscribed towards the scheme in the city and district. The District Board contributes Rs. 25,000 and the Municipal Committee has set aside Rs. 32,000 from savings in aid of the scheme. The total cost is expected to be about Rs. 3,50,000 and Government assistance will be required to provide the balance not yet contributed from other sources. The project has been taken up warmly since 1890.

The cantonment lies four miles to the south-east of the city, and between it and the cantonments lies the civil station, the latter being about a quarter of a mile from the city. Here there are no residents beyond the district staff and members of the American Presbyterian Mission. The Sessions Judge of the Division resides and holds his court in cantonments. Both the civil station and cantonments are prettily wooded, and contain avenues of fine old *shísham* and *pípal* trees.

History.

Ambála was founded probably during the 14th century, and the founder is supposed to be one Amba Rájpút, from whom it derives its name. It seems more likely, however, that the name is a corruption of "Ambwála," or the Mango-village, judging from the number of mango groves that exist in its immediate neighbourhood. The town rose to no importance either in Imperial or Sikh times. In 1809, when the Cis-Sutlej States came under British protection, the estate of Ambála was held by Daya Kaur, widow of Sardár Gurbaksh Singh, who had died in 1783. The town had been originally conquered by one Sangat Singh, but was treacherously wrested from him by Gurbaksh Singh, whom he had entrusted with its guardianship. Daya Kaur was temporarily ejected by Ranjít Singh in 1808, but was restored by General Ochterlony. On her death, which occurred in 1823, the state lapsed to the British Government, and the town was fixed upon as the residence of the Political Agent for the Cis-Sutlej States. In 1843 the present cantonment was established, and in 1849 Ambála became the head-quarters of a district and division under the newly formed Punjab Administration.

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Taxation, trade, etc.

The municipality of Ambála was first constituted in 1862. It is now a municipality of the 2nd class. The Committee consists of eight elected and four official members. Two of the latter are nominated by the Deputy Commissioner and two hold office *ex-officio*. Table No. XLV. shows the income of the municipality for the last nine years. It is chiefly derived from octroi levied at various rates on goods brought within municipal limits. Ambála is well situated from a commercial point of view, about midway between the Jamna and Sutlej, just at the point where the Grand Trunk Road and the North-Western and Delhi-Kálka Railways meet. Owing to its central position and the number of European residents, and of travellers that pass through it on their way to and from the hills, the Ambála cantonment boasts of a large number of English shops, and a brisk trade in European commodities is constantly carried on. The city is a considerable grain mart, receiving grain in large quantities, both from the districts and from the independent States to the west, and exporting it both up and down-country. It carries on a considerable trade in the hill products, ginger, turmeric, &c. From the south, it imports English cloth and iron, and from the Punjab proper, salt, wool, and woollen and silk manufactures. In return it manufactures and exports cotton goods, especially *daris*, in considerable quantities. This, however, is the only manufacture of any note. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at page 89.

Institutions.

The District Board School is in a good building close to Ambála city, and just inside the town there is the High School attached to the American Mission. These have been already described. The district offices lie about a mile-and-a-half to the west of the civil station, and about half a mile to the south-west of the town. They consist of a court-house and treasury, the latter being in a separate building from the court-house, and a detached police office. This last building was erected in 1883. A meeting room and office for the District Board were built in 1880 and 1886 and a court-house for the District Judge in 1891. The large Civil Hospital built recently near the town will accommodate some 40 in-patients. There is also a gaol for about 700 prisoners and a new central gaol is in course of construction. The leper hospital near the city has been noticed on page 103. In cantonments there is a fine church, capable of seating more than 1,000 persons; the Sirhind Club, which is maintained by the residents; and a large railway station; while several good hotels and a staging bungalow provide ample accommodation for travellers. At the north-east end of the cantonments are the Paget Park gardens. In the sadr bazaar, there is a small church frequented principally by Eurasians; and a church and school belonging to the American Presbyterian Mission.

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Population and vital statistics.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken; but the details in the opposite margin throw some light on the matter. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. The annual birth and death-rates per *mille* of population since 1882 are as follows, the basis of calculation being the figures of the most recent census:—

Limits of enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	1868	50,649	30,657	19,992
	1881	67,463	39,330	28,133
	1891	79,294	47,511	31,783
Municipal limits ...	1868	24,040	...	...
	1875	26,258	...	...
	1881	26,777	...	...
	1891	28,278	...	...

Town or suburb.	Population.		
	1868.	1881.	1891.
Ambála town ...	24,027	26,159	26,856
Civil lines ...		618	1,422
Cantonments ...	26,622	40,686	51,016

Year.	Birth-rates.			Death-rates.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1882 ...	43	22	21	33	33	34
1883 ...	43	23	20	34	31	38
1884 ...	40	20	20	84	77	91
1885 ...	29	15	14	25	24	26
1886 ...	44	23	21	25	24	26
1887 ...	40	21	19	55	52	57
1888 ...	40	22	18	35	34	37
1889 ...	40	21	19	33	30	35
1890 ...	36	19	17	72	65	80
1891 ...	39	22	17	30	30	29
Average	39	21	18	43	40	45

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Jagádhri is situated 37 miles south-east of Ambála and three miles to the north of the North-Western Railway, and is the head-quarters of a tahsíl and thána. The municipality is repre-

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Jagádhri town.

sented by a 3rd class Committee of nine members, of whom six are elected. The income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV. and is derived from octroi duties. Jagádhri is a town of some importance. It has a population of 13,029 inhabitants. It owes its importance to Rái Singh of Buria, who conquered it in the Sikh times, and encouraged the commercial and manufacturing classes to settle here. It was utterly destroyed by Nádir Shah, but was rebuilt in 1783 by the same Rái Singh. It lapsed to the British Government in 1829, together with the territory of which it was the capital. The old name of the place was Ganga Dhari, so-called from a store of Ganges water enshrined in the place at its foundation.

The town imports copper and iron from the hills and from Calcutta and Bombay, and considerable manufactures are carried on in these metals. Vessels and tools of various descriptions are exported both into the North-Western Provinces and into the Punjab. It has been already noted, in the description of the special industries of the district by Mr. Lockwood Kipling, inserted at Chapter IV, page 89, that Jagádhri has a well-deserved reputation for brass-ware. Ornamental lamps and other forms of brass-ware are exceptionally well made. Borax, brought from the hills, is here refined and exported to Bengal. Oxide of lead is also manufactured for use by goldsmiths, and in native medicines. The town earned some notoriety in 1864 from the detection of a long established manufactory of spurious gold coins. The coins were made up to resemble the old Jaipur Mohar of the years 1808 to 1813. They contained rather more alloy than the genuine gold coins, so as to yield a profit of from 12 annas to Rs. 1-4-0 on each coin of a nominal value of Rs. 16. It was found that a regular business had been carried on for ten years by a number of persons in the manufacture of these coins. They were sold at Simla and Mussoorie, where gold coins were at the time in great demand owing to the number of servants and men employed on the Thibet road, who preferred gold for its portability, and owing also to the hoarding propensities of the hill Rájas. It was estimated that from 1,000 to 2,000 coins a month were being turned out. They were manufactured principally from English sovereigns, and the discovery was put forward prominently in 1864 as pointing to the necessity for a Government gold coinage. Murshidabad Mohars were imitated for use in the plains as well as Jaipur coins.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. The annual birth and death-rates per *mille* of population since 1882

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	11,676	6,388	5,288
1875 ...	12,522	...	...
1881 ...	12,300	6,511	5,789
1891 ...	13,029	6,917	6,112

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Jagádhri town.

are given below, the basis of calculation being the figures of the most recent census:—

Year.	Birth-rates.			Death-rates.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1882 ...	30	15	15	26	26	25
1883 ...	34	18	16	22	21	23
1884 ...	33	17	16	41	37	46
1885 ...	26	13	13	23	21	26
1886 ...	26	13	13	23	21	26
1887 ...	40	21	19	55	52	57
1888 ...	34	19	15	30	29	31
1889 ...	32	16	16	32	33	33
1890 ...	32	17	15	40	38	41
1891 ...	32	19	13	30	29	31
Average	32	17	15	32	31	34

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Buria town.

The town of Buria is situated near the west bank of the Jamna Canal, 3½ miles to the north of the North-Western Railway. It contains a population of 6,809 souls. Buria is an ancient town, built in the time of the Emperor Humáyún. It was taken by the Sikhs about 1760, and became the head-quarters of a considerable chiefship; one of those nine which were exempted from the reforms of 1849, and allowed to retain independent jurisdiction for some time after the reduction of the other chiefs to the position of jágírdárs. Part of the estate has since lapsed, but the remainder is still held as jágír by Sardár Jíwan Singh, the present representative of the family. There is a handsome fort inside the town, the residence of the Sardar. The municipality is represented by a 3rd class Committee consisting of seven members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner, five of whom are non-official. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV. and is derived from octroi duties. A considerable manufacture of country cloth is carried on here, but there is no trade of any consequence. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII.

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	8,351	4,262	4,089
1875 ...	8,197	...	...
1881 ...	7,411	3,775	3,636
1891 ...	6,809	3,459	3,350

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Sadhaura town.

Sadhaura is a small town situated near the hills, 26 miles east of Ambála, on the Nakti or Sadhaurawáli naddi. The town is one of some antiquity, dating back to the time of Mahmúd of Ghazni, but is now of no political importance. It is the scene of a yearly fair at the shrine of a Muhammadan saint named Shah Kumais. This fair takes place on the 10th of Rabi-ul-Sáni and four following days; the attendance is estimated at 20,000 persons. There is a thána here and also a middle school. The Municipal Committee consists of nine members, of whom six are elected. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No: XLV. and is mainly derived from octroi duties. Coarse country cloth is manufactured to a considerable extent in the town, and it has a local trade in country produce. The town is notorious as being the centre of a considerable industry in the manufacture of forged documents. Much of the crime of that class in the district and over a large extent of neighbouring country is believed to be originated or abetted by residents of Sadhaura. There is a large colony of Sayads in the town and neighbouring villages. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII.

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	11,198	5,618	5,580
1875 ...	11,167	...	...
1881 ...	10,794	5,532	5,262
1891 ...	10,445	5,308	5,137

The annual birth and death-rates per mille of population since 1882 are as follows, the basis of calculation being the figures of the most recent census :—

Year.	Birth-rates.			Death-rates.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1882 ...	30	16	14	26	27	25
1883 ...	33	21	12	24	24	24
1884 ...	38	20	18	59	53	66
1885 ...	30	16	14	28	27	30
1886 ...	34	19	15	30	29	32
1887 ...	34	19	15	37	39	34
1888 ...	27	14	13	25	29	21
1889 ...	33	20	13	27	28	26
1890 ...	31	16	15	54	52	56
1891 ...	32	17	15	50	47	52
Average	32	18	14	36	35	36

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Shahábád town.

Shahábád is situated on the Grand Trunk Road 16 miles south of Ambála, and is the head-quarters of a *thána* or police jurisdiction. The town was founded by one of the followers of the Emperor Ala-ud-dín Ghori about A.D. 1086. Its population, consisting principally of Muhammadans, amounts to 11,473.

The town is situated on the Delhi-Kálka Railway, and there is a station at Shahábád called Karindwa. The Márkanda flows close to the town, and extensive protection works are required to preserve the village lands, the town itself, and the Grand Trunk Road bridge over the Márkanda, from destruction by flood. The greater part of the town is well built of brick, and is ornamented by several large residences, the property of Sikh *Sardárs*. There is an encamping-ground and an old Government rest-house for troops, which is now used as a school. The Municipal Committee consists of nine members, of whom six are elected. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived mainly from octroi duties. The inhabitants of Shahábád are principally agricultural, and it has no manufactures, nor any trade beyond the local grain trade. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. The annual birth and death-rates per mille of population since 1882 are given below, the basis of calculation being the figures of the most recent census:—

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	11,678	6,422	5.256
1875 ...	11,660	...	...
1881 ...	10,218	3,091	5,127
1891 ...	11,473	6,104	5,369

Year.	Birth-rates.			Death-rates.		
	Persons	Males.	Females.	Persons	Males.	Females.
1882 ...	32	17	15	22	23	21
1883 ...	36	19	17	22	22	23
1884 ...	31	17	14	65	68	62
1885 ...	23	12	11	19	21	17
1886 ...	28	16	12	20	20	19
1887 ...	28	15	13	49	48	50
1888 ...	24	13	11	19	24	15
1889 ...	27	14	13	18	20	16
1890 ...	22	11	11	56	60	52
1891 ...	38	21	17	33	33	34
Average.	29	13	16	32	34	31

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Thánesar town.

Thánesar is situated 25 miles south of Ambála on the Sarusti, and is one of the oldest and most celebrated places in India; though it is first mentioned under its present name of Thánesar by Hwen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim of the seventh century. The name was originally *Sthaneswara*, and is derived by General Cunningham "either from the *Sthána*, or abode of *Iswára*, or Mahádeva, or from the junction of his names of *Sthánu* and *Iswara*, or from *Sthánu*, and *Sar*, a lake." The fame and sanctity of the spot, however, arises more from its connection with the Pándus than from its possession of a temple of Mahádeva. This part of the history has been already alluded to. Hwen Thsang represents Thánesar in his time as the capital of a separate kingdom, 1,167 miles in circuit. The name of the king is not mentioned, but he was tributary to Kanauj. If Hwen Thsang's measurements are correct, the kingdom must have stretched from the Sutlej to the Ganges, and south-wards as far as Pákpattan in the Montgomery district.

Of the Muhammadan era there is nothing to be recorded, beyond the fact that in A.D. 1011 the town was taken and sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazni, on the occasion of his sixth invasion of India. At the time of the disintegration of the Muhammadan empire, Thánesar was seized upon by Mith Singh, a Jat Sikh from the Mánjha. His nephews, Bhág Singh and Bhanga Singh, further increased the family estates, which were enjoyed until 1850, when they lapsed to Government on failure of heirs. In June 1849, when sovereign powers were taken from the Cis-Sutlej chiefs, Thánesar for a time had become the head-quarters of a British district. This, however, was broken up in 1862, and from that time Thánesar has rapidly declined in importance, so much so that the whole town is falling into ruin. Even its religious festivals are declining. The sanitary arrangements introduced by the British authorities to prevent the spread of disease are said to be most unpopular, and to deter large numbers of pilgrims from attending. The numbers, which formerly used to be as high as 500,000, dwindled in 1871 to about 60,000, and in June 1872, although the occasion was said to be a very solemn one, and more than 100,000 people were expected, less than 22,000 paid the toll; and allowing for some who may have escaped payment, the total number can hardly have exceeded 30,000. The toll alluded to is a tax of three *pie* levied from each pilgrim to defray the expenses of conservancy and police. Another cause assigned for the diminished attendance is the effect of the railway communications. It is said that, whereas in former days great men used to march to Thánesar with small armies of followers and attendants, they now come by rail with a few servants to the nearest station, and return in the same way It is however possible that the place will recover some of its popularity now that it is on the direct line of rail between Delhi and Ambála. The present town consists of an old ruined fort, about 1,200 feet square at the top, having the modern town

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Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Thánesar town.

on a mound to the east, and a suburb on another mound to the west. Altogether the old mounds occupy a space nearly a mile in length and about 2,000 feet in breadth. To the south of the town lies a space called Darra, now open, but bearing traces of having been built over in former years, and beyond this lies the sacred lake. This bears several names: Brahmasar, Ráma-hrad, Váyu or Váyava-Sar, and Pavana-Sar. It is an oblong sheet of water, 3,546 feet in length from east to west, and 1,900 feet in breadth. It is believed that, during eclipses of the moon, the waters of all other tanks visit this tank at Thánesar, so that he who bathes in it at the moment of eclipse, obtains the additional merit of bathing in all the other tanks at the same time. For this and other reasons the great Thánesar tank is the centre of attraction for most pilgrims, but around it for many miles is holy ground. Popular belief declares the holy places connected with the Pándavas and Kauravas, and other heroes of antiquity, to be 360 in number, and General Cunningham is inclined to believe that this number is not exaggerated. The attendance of visitors is not confined to the great festivals. At all seasons of the year, a stream of worshippers is kept up at the shrines of Thánesar and the Kurukshetra. Of the numbers of these no record can be attempted, but they probably equal during the year the numbers who attend on the occasions of the eclipse festivals.

The Municipal Committee consists of nine members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner, of whom six are non-official. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV. and is derived from octroi duties. The trade of Thánesar has never been great, and such as was, has much declined since the construction of the Grand Trunk Road, which leaves Thánesar several miles to the west. The old imperial road of Muhammadan time passed through the town, and caused it to be the *entrepôt* of the local trade. The principal inhabitants at present are Hindu priests, who support themselves by contributions collected at festival times, supplemented by the exertions of emissaries dispersed as mendicants throughout the country. The whole town and neighbourhood has a dilapidated air, and is reputed to be most unhealthy. The high death-rate, however, is undoubtedly to be attributed to some extent to the numbers of worn out Hindús who crawl to the Kurukshetra to die within its sacred precincts. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII.

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	7,929	4,026	3,930
1875 ...	7,111	...	...
1881 ...	6,005	3,117	2,888
1891 ...	6,111	3,611	2,500

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

Ládwa town.

Ládwa is a small municipal town, containing 4,011 inhabitants, situated 33 miles to the south-east of Ambála, on the *kacha* road from Pípli to Radaur. This town formerly belonged to Rája Ajít Singh; but in 1846 his estates were confiscated in consequence of his conduct during the Lahore campaign, and pensions were granted to his two sons. The family is now extinct. An old fort, which was the residence of the Rája, still exists, and is a substantial old building. Ládwa is the head-quarters of a thána, and contains a middle school. The Municipal Committee consists of six members, of whom five are non-official. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV. and is derived mainly from octroi collections. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII.

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	4,289	2,262	2,027
1875 ...	4,121	...	...
1881 ...	4,061	2,148	1,913
1891 ...	4,011	2,175	1,836

Rúpar town.

Rúpar is the head-quarters of a subdivision of the Ambála district. It is situated on the Sutlej, 45 miles north of Ambála, and has a population of 8,693. The town is one of considerable antiquity, and was formerly known as Rúp Nagar. It formed part of the dominions of the Sikh chief Hari Singh, and in 1792 came to his son Charat Singh; his estates were confiscated in 1846 in consequence of the part taken by the family in the Sikh war of 1845. Rúpar is important as being the site of the head-works of the Sirhind Canal. The Assistant Commissioner in civil charge of the subdivision has his head-quarters here. There is also an Assistant Engineer of the Canal Department stationed here. Two important religious fairs—one Muhammadan and the other Hindu—take place annually at Rúpar. The public buildings are the Assistant Commissioner's Court, the tahsíl and thána, a post office and a staging bungalow. There is also a Municipal Board school and a dispensary. The Municipal Committee consists of nine members, of whom six are elected. Its income for the last nine years is shown in Table No. XLV. and is derived from octroi duties. Rúpar is an important mart of exchange between the hills and plains and carries on a considerable trade in gram, sugar and indigo. Salt is largely imported from the Salt Range Mines, and exported to the hills in return for iron, ginger, potatoes, turmeric, opium and *charas*. Country cloth, also, woven in the town, is largely exported to the hills. The smiths of Rúpar have a reputation for the manufacture of locks and other small articles of iron. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 to 1891 is shown in

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Rúpar town.

the margin. The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses, are shown in Table No. XLIII. The decline in population shown by the figures for 19 1 is due to the departure from Rúpar of a large floating

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868 ...	8,710	4,641	4,069
1875 ...	10,261	...	...
1881 ...	10,326	6,171	4,155
1891 ...	8,693	4,663	4,030

population connected with the Sirhind Canal construction works in 1883, after the opening of the canal in 1882. The place is still flourishing and perhaps the most thriving of the small towns of the Ambála district, though it has ceased to be the important place it was during the period of canal construction. The canal workshops are still kept going here, but the railway which connected Rúpar with Dauraha was taken up in 1884-85 on ceasing to be required by the Canal Department. Rúpar has some historical interest as being the place of the celebrated conference between the Governor-General (Lord William Bentinck) and the Maharaja Ranjít Singh in 1831.

The annual birth and death-rates per *mille* of population since 1882 are given below, the basis being the figures of the most recent census. The series ends with 1890, as the population of Rúpar having fallen below 10,000 in the census of 1891 the place has ceased to be classified as one of the important towns of the Punjab :—

Year.	Birth-rates.			Death-rates.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1882 ...	30	17	13	20	17	23
1883 ...	38	20	18	21	20	21
1884 ...	38	22	16	39	36	43
1885 ...	35	17	18	34	21	30
1886 ...	39	21	18	26	25	28
1887 ...	35	16	19	27	23	32
1888 ...	34	18	16	25	21	31
1889 ...	36	18	18	26	23	31
1890 ...	36	19	17	34	30	39
Average	36	19	17	28	26	31

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Mani Májra.

Mani Májra, though not classed as a town, was till lately of some local importance. It is situated 23 miles due north of Ambála, close to the foot of the hills. Nothing is known of its

Mani Májra.

history before the Sikh period. But after the death of Zain Khan, Governor of Sirhind, in 1763 A.D., and the break up of the Imperial power, one Gharíb Dás, a Sikh leader, seized upon 84 villages which his father had held as a revenue officer under the empire. Mani Májra became the capital of the new principality, which was further extended by the seizure of the fortress of Pinjaur. This, however, was afterwards wrested from Mani Májra by the Patiála Rája. Gharíb Dás died in 1783, leaving two sons, Gopál Singh and Parkásh Chand. The elder of these did excellent service in 1809, and again in the Gurkha campaign of 1814. He received at his own request, in lieu of other reward, the title of Rája. He died in 1860. The jagir, then worth Rs. 39,000 a year, finally lapsed to Government in 1875 on the death of the late Rája Bhagwán Singh without proper heirs; and the importance of the place has since rapidly declined.

The shrine of Mansa Devi, situated a few miles to the north of the town, is yearly a centre of attraction to large numbers of worshippers. The shrine formerly was in the Náhan territory. On one occasion, however, the stream which supplied the pilgrims with water was cut off by some of the hill tribes, and great distress occasioned. At this crisis, Gurbakhsh Singh, Rája of Mani Májra, most opportunely dreamed that the goddess appeared to him, and directed him to establish her shrine in his territory. He obeyed the call with alacrity, and was rewarded by the realization of considerable profit from the annual fair. As many as 40,000 people, of whom perhaps one-half are pilgrims from a distance, are computed to attend the festival, which takes place on the 8th of Chait and four following days.

The local industries are the manufacture of various articles from bamboo, and cutting mill-stones, of which a large quantity are annually turned out. A small trade also is carried on with the hills in country produce, especially ginger and spices. Mani Májra is the centre of the very unhealthy tract known as the Neli, which has been mentioned on pages 38 and 115. The town is occupied by cultivators from a number of the worst villages of the tract, who are unable to live on their lands owing to the deadly climate. A large proportion of these people are afflicted with malarial disease of a very bad type, and the town has in consequence acquired a bad name for sanitation. It is in a miserable, decayed condition, and in spite of the fine crops to be raised in parts of the Neli the strongest inducements will hardly tempt new cultivators to settle in the place.

PUNJAB GAZETTEER.

AMBALA DISTRICT.

Appendix, giving detail of the Jagirs of Ambala, classified as Major jagirs, Pattidari jagirs and Zaildari jagirs.

Abstract showing the gross total sum assigned to jágírdárs in Ambála, inclusive of commutation money recovered from them in lieu of liability for Military Service.

						Rs.
Major jágírs,	detailed	in Statement	A ...	...	...	2,55,811
Pattidári jágírs,	,,	,,	B ...	...	...	3,05,095
Zaildári ,,	,,	,,	C ...	...	...	15,519
		Total assigned to jágírdárs		...	...	5,76,425

NOTE :—The figures contained in the following jágír statements were compiled on the conclusion of the revised settlement operations in 1890. In some few cases the details of the number of families and sharers have altered slightly during the period 1890—1892.

APPENDIX.—DETAIL OF AMBALA DISTRICT JAGIRS.

STATEMENT A.—MAJOR JAGIRS.

NOTE.—(1) The jágírs given in this statement are those now held by the survivors among what are commonly known as the "34 houses" of Ambala and Karnál, together with a few small jágír shares held by important families in other districts.

(2). A few larger jágírs enjoyed by Darbárís of the district are for technical reasons classed as Pattidárí jágírs and shown in Statement B. The following is a detail:—

Jharauli, Rs. 3,845, Statement B, Tahsíl Pípli, No. 12.
Purkhali, „ 4,924, „ „ Rúpar, „ 1.
Miánpur, „ 5,099, „ „ „ „ 9.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
						Detail of Jagir Revenue.					
						Received by jágírdár.					
Serial Number.	Name of jágír.	Tahsil in which situated.	Number of villages (whole or part).	Name of jágírdár.	Number in District Darbar List.	From original jágír villages.	By lapsed Zaildári shares.	Total existing jágír.	Outstanding Zaildári revenue.	Total.	Rate of commutation paid per rupee of revenue.
						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1	Búria ...	Jagádhri ...	62	Sardár Jíwan Singh, C.I.E.	1	38,959	2,729	41,688	6,354	48,042	one anna.
2	Shahzádpur	Amballa, Pípli and Naráingarh.	45	Sardár Jíwan Singh, Shahid, C.S.I.	2	26,282	151	26,433	2,842	29,275	two anna.
3	Kotáha, including Morni.	Naráingarh	32	Muhammad Báqar Ali Khán, C.I.E.	4	12,496	12	12,508	425	12,933	two annas, in plains jágír. None in the Morni jágír.
4	Singhpuria ...	Rúpar and Kharar.	107	Sardár Autár Singh of Manauli.	3	33,511	1,460	34,971	2,669	37,640	One anna in part and two annas in part.
5	...	...	...	Sardár Uttam Singh of Ghanauli.	5	5,091	137	5,228	226	5,454	One anna and two annas in part.
6	...	...	...	Sardár Partáb Singh of Ghanauli.	6	4,223	387	4,610	254	4,864	Do.
7	...	...	...	Sardar Lachman Singh of Bunga.*	7	10,604	222	10,826	650	11,476	Do.
8	...	...	...	Sardár Harbans Singh of Kandaula.	8	3,484	58	3,542	255	3,747	Do.
9	...	...	...	Sardár Bhola Singh of Kandaula.	...	2,736	20	2,756	46	2,802	Do.
10	...	...	...	Sardár Shamsher Singh of Bharatgarh.	...	1,490	28	1,518	117	1,635	Do.
11	...	...	...	Sardár Randhír Singh of Bharatgarh.	...	1,493	27	1,520	118	1,638	Do.
	Total for Main Branch of the Singhpuria Sardárs				...	62,632	2,339	64,971	4,285	69,256	...

NOTE:—The Bunga family became extinct in 1890, and the Bunga jágír passed to other Singhpuria Sardárs in the following Shares:—Ghanauli Sardars one-half; Kandaula Sardars one-third; and Bharatgarh Sardars one-sixth

STATEMENT A.—MAJOR JAGIRS —(*continued*).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Serial Number.	Name of jágír.	Tahsíl in which situated.	Number of villages (whole or part).	Name of jágírdár.	Number in District Darbár List.	Detail of jagir revenue. Received by jágírdár. From original jágír villages.	By lapsed Zaildári shares.	Total existing jágír.	Outstanding Zaildári revenue.	Total.	Rate of commutation paid per rupee of revenue.
						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
12	Baidwán ...	Kharar ...	18	Sardár Bhagwán Singh of Sohána.	9	6,766	214	6,980	600	7,581	One anna, except in Bákarpur two annas.
13	...	...	10	Sardár Naráin Singh of Manakmájra.	10	7,077	124	7,201	614	7,815	Do.
14	Singhpuria Bhareli Branch.	Kharar ...	21	Sardár Tára Singh of Bhareli.	11	15,236	...	15,236	...	15,236	One anna.
15	Kharar ...	Ditto ...	11	Sardár Harnám Singh of Kharar.	12	6,936	...	6,936	364	7,300	Two annas.
16	Maloa Sardárs	Ditto ...	6	Sardár Atar Singh of Maloa and 16 other sharers.	13	4,281	...	4,281	...	4,281	Do.
17	Rámgarh Rájpúts.	Naráingarh	15	Sardár Pardnman Singh of Rámgarh.	14	6,772	...	6,772	...	6,772	One anna.
18	...	...	10	Sardárs Shamsher Singh and Golab Singh of Rámgarh.	15	4,639	...	4,639	...	4,639	Do.
19	...	...	8	Sardár Govardhan Singh of Rámgarh.	16	2,403	...	2,403	...	2,403	Do.
20	...	...	2	Sardár Sukhdarshan Singh and Suchet Singh of Khatauli.	17	2,349	...	2,349	...	2,349	Do.
21	...	...	5	Sardár Amar Singh of Dhandarru.	...	2,371	...	2,371	...	2,371	Do.
		Total for the Rámgarh Rájpút family.			...	18,534	...	18,534	...	18,534	Do.
22	Shahábad ...	Pípli and Rúpar.	29	Sardár Shíb Naráin Singh of Shahabad	18	3,019	...	3,019	...	3,019	Two annas.
23	...	...	...	Sardár Bachitar Singh of Shahabad.	19	3,018	...	3,018	...	3,018	Do.
24	...	...	24	Sardár Rám Naráin Singh of Kharindwa.	20	3,761	...	3,761	...	3,761	Do.
25	Raipur Chauhan Rájpúts.	Naráingarh.	17	Ráo Baldeo Singh of Raipur.	21	4,035	...	4,035	...	4,035	One anna.
26	Kotla Nihang Patháns.	Rúpar ...	9	Sardár Muhammad Alam Khán of Kotla Nihang. (Jágír orders contained in Government No. 318, dated 5th March 1873, to Financial Commissioner.)	22	2,321	...	2,321	...	2,321	Do.
27	...	...	...	Faiz Muhammad Khán	...	1,110	...	1,110	...	1,110	Do.

STATEMENT A.—MAJOR JAGIRS.—(*concluded*).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
						Detail of jagir revenue.					
						Received by jágirdár.					
Serial Number.	Name of jágír.	Tahsíl in which situated.	Number of villages (whole or part).	Name of jágírdár.	Number in District Darbár List.	From original jágír villages.	By lapsed Zaildári shares.	Total existing jágír.	Outstanding Zaildári revenue.	Total.	Rate of commutation paid per rupee of revenue.
						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
28	Shahid Patti Tingor.	Pípli ...	10	Sardár Kishan Singh and Jasmir Singh of Thol.	23 & 24	7,708	...	7,708	...	7,708	Two annas.
29	...	...	...	Sardár Lál Singh ...	...	2,108	...	2,108	...	2,108	Do.
30	Mustafábad	Jagádhri	8	Sardár Tilok Singh ...	26	2,668	...	2,668	...	2,668	Do.
31	...	...	..	Sardár Naino Singh ...	27	5,336	...	5,336	...	5,336	Do.
32	Leda ...	Jagádhri and Naráingarh.	14	Leda Sardárs numerous sharers.	28	2,328	...	2,328	...	2,328	Do.
33	Sáran ...	Jagádhri	4	Sardárs of Zail Sáran	...	3,121	...	3,121	...	3,121	Do.
34	...	...	3	Sardárs of Zail Sultánpur.	...	1,547	...	1,547	...	1,547	Do.
35	...	...	2	Sardárs of Zail Kaulpur.	...	1,070	...	1,070	...	1,070	Do.
36	Sikandra ...	Pipli ...	5	Sardárs Sant Singh and Waryám Singh.	32	1,678	...	1,678	...	1,678	Do.
37	Dhanaura Labkari.	...	2	Sardár Amar Singh and 5 other sharers.	...	1,123	...	1,123	...	1,123	One anna.
38	Arnauli ...	Ambála	3	Sárdár Jasmer Singh of Arnauli and Sardár Anokh Síngh of Siddowál, Karnál District.	...	355	...	355	...	355	Two annas
39	Ladran ...	Kharar...	4	Eleven Sardárs holding small separate shares, residents of Ludhiána District.	...	1,555	12	1,567	35	1,602	Do.
40	Bhabat ...	...	3	Sardárs Basant Singh and Lachmi Singh. (Special jágír given for Mutiny services to a Rájpút family of the Kuthar State in the Simla District.)	...	3,170	...	3,170	...	3,170	None.
		Total Jagir for the Major Jagirdars of the Ambala district including residents in other districts.				2,50,230	5,581	2,55,811	15,519	2,71,330	

STATEMENT B.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District.

NOTE.—(1). In some of these *jágírs* the villages are scattered through two or more tahsíls, but for convenience the *jágír* is classified under one head according to the tahsíl in which the principal share lies.

(2). The distribution of villages as wholly or partly *jágír* is only approximately accurate. If calculated strictly, the number of partly *jágír*, *i. e.* shared, villages would be rather larger than as shown in this statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Serial No. of jágír.	Name of Jagir.	Number of villages. Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Total number of Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Ambála.						Rs.		
1	Akálgarh	1	...	1	1851	4 annas	225	3	4
2	Udepur	1	...	1	1852	Rs. 70 lump sum	137	1	2
3	Babial (including Dukheri)	21	...	21	1809	2 annas	17,087	17	94
4	Boh	21	6	27	1809	2 ,,	10,396	59	249
5	Bhanukheri	2	3	5	1809	2 ,,	1,713	5	18
6	Bihta	6	...	6	1809	2 ,,	5,662	17	81
7	Panjokhra	19	...	19	1809	2 ,,	12,575	32	117
8	Tharwa	6	3	9	1809	2 ,,	2,733	18	65
9	Chhota Kaserla	1	...	1	1851	4 ,,	225	3	5
10	Chhota Patti Ambála	6	17	23	1809 and 1852.	2, 4 and 8 annas	15,912	36	130
11	Khánpura	2	...	2	1809	2 annas	567	4	11
12	Durána	8	3	11	1809	2 ,,	1,227	20	52
13	Dhanauri (Mulána)	1	...	1	1809	2 ,,	521	1	5
14	Dhanauri (Ambála)	1	...	1	1852	2 ,,	790	5	7
15	Dhín	9	...	9	1809	2 ,,	8,551	3	13
16	Rámgarh *urf* Sharífpur	...	1	1	1809	2 ,,	152	8	39
17	Sarangpur	1	...	1	Life jágír.	No commutation	39	1	3
18	Sabka	1	...	1	1809	2 annas	1,766	3	14
19	Sherpur	1	...	1	1809	2 ,,	525	2	9
20	Májri	7	4	11	1809 and 1852.	2, 4 and 8 annas	3,765	18	58
21	Nurhad	2	...	2	1809	2 annas	729	1	4
	Total Tahsíl Ambála	117	37	154	...	...	85,297	257	980

STATEMENT B.—CONTINUED.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District—continued.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Number of villages.						Total number of	
Serial No. of jágír.	Name of jagir.	Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Kharar.						Rs.		
1	Badáli ...	1	...	1	1852	2 annas ...	504	14	26
2	Ballu Májra ...	3	2	5	1809	2 and 4 annas	1,746	21	79
3	Pindwála ...	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	491	3	17
4	Todarpur ...	3	1	4	1809	2 and 4 annas	1,793	7	17
5	Cholian Burail ...	3	17	20	1809	2 annas ...	9,067	67	369
6	Do. Sukhgarh ...	...	7	7	,,	2 ,, ...	1,901	33	147
7	Do. Kumra ...	2	7	9	,,	2 ,, ...	3,606	40	202
8	Do. Landran ...	1	5	6	,,	2 ,, ...	2,503	38	191
9	Do. Lamba ...	...	7	7	,,	2 ,, ...	2,178	27	107
10	Dafarpur ...	2	...	2	,,	2 ,, ...	275	2	29
11	Dhanaurán ...	1	...	1	Life jágír.	4 annas ...	269	1	1
12	Rurki ...	4	...	4	1852	4 and 8 annas...	3,660	7	12
13	Sil ...	4	...	4	1809	2 annas ...	3,627	1	2
14	Sundrán ...	2	...	2	...	2 ,, ...	944	6	15
15	Kanaurán ...	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	563	4	10
16	Gadhera ...	5	...	5	...	2 ,, ...	13,676	2	14
17	Garangan ...	...	11	11	...	2 ,, ...	3,005	3	7
18	Main Májri ...	2	...	2	...	2 ,, ...	1,825	1	4
19	Harlálpur ...	1	...	1	Life jágír.	4 annas ...	524	3	8
20	Haftami Bákarpur ...	...	...	20	1852	2 annas ...	992	12	22
21	Do. Buterla ...	...	1	1	...	2 ,, ...	33	2	6
22	Do. Burail ...	...	10	10	...	2 ,, ...	799	51	111
23	Do. Shafipur ...	...	1	1	...	2 ,, ...	49	1	2
24	Do. Salahpur ...	...	1	1	...	2 ,, ...	13	35	58
25	Do. Kumra ...	...	2	2	...	2 ,, ...	305	59	97
26	Do. Mauli ...	...	7	7	...	2 ,, ...	361	136	285
	Total Tahsíl Kharar ...	36	99	135	...	...	54,709	576	1,838

STATEMENT B.—CONTINUED.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District—continued.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Number of villages.						Total number of	
Serial No. of jágír.	Name of Jagir.	Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Rúpar.						Rs.		
1	Purkháli	14	...	14	1809	1 anna ...	4,924	1	1
2	Todarpur	1	...	1	1847	2 annas ...	1,036	1	2
3	Dumna	1	...	1	Life jágír.	Rs. 250 lump sum	825	1	4
4	Rangilpur	1	...	1	1852	4 and 8 annas...	156	10	17
5	Sahaorán *urf* Bundalian	26	1	27	1852	,, ...	8,817	132	272
6	Gagon	1	...	1	...	,, ...	555	9	14
7	Lakhmipur	1	...	1	...	,, ...	447	7	14
8	Lutheri	9	...	9	...	,, ..	9,734	9	20
9	Miánpur	10	...	10	1847	1 anna ...	5,099	1	1
	Total Tahsíl Rúpar ...	64	1	65	...	...	31,593	171	345
	Tahsíl Naráingarh.								
1	Imli	6	...	6	1809	2 annas ...	3,917	9	37
2	Baghwála	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	594	1	9
3	Bakarpur	1	...	1	1850	2 and 4 annas...	349	2	6
4	Badagarh	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	523	4	15
5	Baktuha	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	126	1	20
6	Banaundi	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	529	5	14
7	Patwi	2	...	2	1850	4 and 8 annas...	1,550	1	4
8	Panjeton	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	588	3	13
9	Tanka Májra	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	143	1	10
10	Tasraula	1	...	1	1850	4 and 8 annas...	159	1	5
11	Tabar	1	...	1	1850	,, ...	395	13	34
12	Tunda Bágh	1	...	1	1809	1 anna ...	120	3	5
13	Chhota Korwa	2	..	2	1852	4 and 8 annas	1,499	12	22
14	Chhotagarh	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ..	150	2	5

STATEMENT B.—CONTINUED.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District—continued.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Number of villages.						Total number of	
Serial No. of jágír.	Name of jagir.	Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of Jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Naráingarh—concluded.						Rs.		
15	Khánpur Brahmanán	1	...	1	1850	4 and 8 annas	950	4	11
16	Do. Labána	2	...	2	...	,, ...	832	17	35
17	Dahr	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	122	1	3
18	Sadhaura-Patti Bawanhaudián ...	9	3	12	1809	1 anna ..	4,975	18	57
19	Do. Berkau	8	5	13	...	1 ,, ...	2,402	2	8
20	Do. Thatewále	9	3	12	..	1 ,, ...	3,470	19	70
21	Do. Kinwále	...	14	14	...	1 ,, ...	3,174	26	114
22	Samanwa	1	...	1	1850	4 and 8 annas	75	3	4
23	Kunjála	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	113	1	7
24	Golpura	1	...	1	1850	4 and 8 annas	217	2	3
25	Lakhnaura	3	...	3	...	,, ...	2,035	12	27
26	Mirzapur	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	393	2	20
27	Nagal Moginand	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	134	1	5
28	Nagla Jatán	1	...	1	1850	4 and 8 annas	625	15	26
	Total Tahsíl Naráingarh ...	60	25	85	...	...	30,149	181	589
	Tahsíl Jagádhri.								
1	Balchhappar	15	...	15	1809	2 annas ...	10,150	10	32
2	Bansar	13	...	13	...	2 ,, ...	9,741	10	54
3	Dhín	2	...	2	...	2 ,, ...	539	7	32
4	Panjeton	4	5	9	...	2 ,, ...	1,354	12	55
5	Choli	1	11	12	...	2 ,, ...	1,009	5	18
6	Sankhera	1	8	9	...	2 ,, ...	944	4	26
7	Marwa	16	8	24	...	2 ,, ...	4,682	16	68
8	Machrauli	13	10	23	...	2 ,, ...	5,814	11	24
9	Bari Muzafat	...	1	1	...	2 ,, ...	300	3	7

STATEMENT B—CONTINUED.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District—continued.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		NUMBER OF VILLAGES.						TOTAL NUMBER OF	
Serial No. of jágír.	NAME OF JAGIR.	Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Jagádhri—concluded.						Rs.		
10	Pirthipur	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	642	1	4
11	Chaowála	...	1	1	...	2 „ ...	417	2	9
12	Khizrabad	2	9	11	...	2 „ ...	2,604	2	10
13	Daryapur	1	...	1	...	2 „ ...	499	1	6
14	Leda	19	20	39	...	2 „ ...	13,598	121	421
15	Bahrámpur	1	...	1	...	2 „ ...	370	3	24
16	Tajakpur	2	...	2	...	2 „ ...	387	1	1
17	Dadupur	1	...	1	1809	No commutation.	145	4	4
18	Mumida	1	...	1	1809	2 annas ...	400	2	7
19	Mumidi	1	...	1	...	„ ...	100	1	1
20	Dyálgarh Badhimájra	1	...	1	1852	4 annas ...	105	1	4
21	Do. Darwa	1	...	1	...	4 „ ...	309	3	7
22	Do. Shádipur	1	...	1	...	4 „ ...	404	4	5
23	Do. Abdullapur	...	1	1	...	4 „ ...	359	2	9
24	Do. Kát...	1	...	1	...	4 „ ...	257	1	1
25	Do. Kamimájra	1	...	1	Life jágír.	4 „ ...	75	1	1
	Total Tahsíl Jagádhri	99	74	173	...	...	55,202	228	830
	Tahsíl Pípli.								
1	Bijanpur	4	7	11	1809	2 annas ...	2,693	16	53
2	Basantpur	4	6	10	...	2 „ ...	3,282	18	55
3	Kurri	6	4	10	...	2 „ ...	4,081	17	49
4	Nahoi	7	4	11	...	2 „ ...	1,481	16	39
5	Gharu	8	6	14	...	2 „ ...	3,267	16	52
6	Dhora Singh	5	6	11	...	2 „	3,286	29	91
7	Rangrata	9	5	14	...	2 „	3,856	34	75

STATEMENT B—CONCLUDED.

Detailed Statement of Pattidári Jágírs, Ambála District—concluded.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Number of villages.						Total number of	
Serial No. of jágír.	Name of jagir.	Whole villages.	Parts of villages.	Total.	Year of jágír status.	Rate of commutation paid.	Total jágír income including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
	Tahsíl Pípli—concluded.						Rs.		
8	Rurki	10	5	15	1809	2 annas ...	3,458	20	70
9	Suján Singh	8	5	13	...	2 ,, ...	3,894	14	39
10	Himmat Singh	3	1	4	...	2 ,, ...	1,802	8	31
11	Heria	11	5	16	...	2 ,, ...	2,499	19	57
12	Jharauli	6	..	6	...	2 ,, ...	3,845	7	19
13	Tingor	12	2	14	...	2 ,, ...	1,973	13	50
14	Ruhati	3	1	4	...	2 ,, ...	3,777	15	59
15	Sikandra	7	...	7	...	2 ,, ...	701	5	10
16	Haibatpur	2	...	2	...	2 ,, ...	1,086	2	8
17	Ismailpur	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	356	2	11
18	Barberi	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	1,000	1	1
19	Thaska Khadir	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	816	4	16
20	Murádnagar	1	..	1	...	2 ,, ...	644	1	3
21	Masána Jatan	1	...	1	...	2 ,, ...	348	1	4
	Total Tahsíl Pípli	110	57	167	...	...	48,145	258	792
	TOTAL AMBALA DISTRICT ...	486	293	779	...	...	2,05,095	1,671	5,374

STATEMENT C.

Detail of Outstanding Zaildári Jágírs of Ambála District.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
								Total number of existing	
Serial No. of Zail.	Tahsíl.	Name of superior jágír.	Name of Zail.	Number of villages (whole or part).	Year of status.	Rate of commutation paid per rupee of revenue.	Revenue, including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
1	Kharar ...	Kharar	Manána	1	1847	2 annas ...	364	2	10
2	" ...	Ladrán	Rasauheri	1	"	" ..	35	9	26
3	" ...	Baidwán Manakmájra.	Ráipur Badmájra...	2	1847	2 annas ...	163	11	28
4	" ...	Baidwán Manakmájra and Soháná.	Bakarpur	1	"	" ...	507	3	12
5	" ...	Ditto	Bujheri	1	"	" ...	544	5	37
		Total	Baidwán Zails ...	...	...	...	1,214	19	77
6	Rúpar ...	Singhpuria Kandaula.	Bara Dáúdpur ...	1	1847	2 annas ...	42	20	29
7	" ...	Ditto	Jasrán	1	"	" ...	107	4	6
8	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli and Bunga.	Khizarpur	1	"	" ...	215	7	28
9	" ...	Singhpuria Bunga	Dadi Naulakha ...	2	"	" ...	442	5	10
10	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli	Kharota	1	"	" ...	321	3	7
11	" ...	Singhpuria Ghanauli	Mangowál	1	"	" ...	53	2	2
12	" ...	Singhpuria Kandaula and Manauli.	Hardo Haripur ...	1	"	" ...	195	6	6
13	Kharar ...	Singhpuria Bharatgarh.	Badála Nayashahr	1	"	" ...	235	13	23
14	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli	Bhagomájra Dhirpur	2	"	" ...	1,038	1	3
15	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli and Kandaula.	Sauetha Manikpur	2	"	" ...	202	3	4
16	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli	Kurri	1	"	" ...	526	5	12
17	" ...	Singhpuria Manauli Ghanauli and Bunga.	Baliáli	5	"	" ...	908	21	29
		Total Si	nghpuria Zails ...	...	...	...	4,285	90	159
18	Naráingarh	Shahzádpur ...	Chhota Bara Bassi	2	1847	2 annas ...	213	3	4
19	Ambála ...	" ...	Chapra	1	"	" ...	483	1	3
20	" ...	" ...	Chhanni	1	"	" ...	399	3	13
21	" ...	" ...	Dubli	1	"	" ...	512	2	23
22	" ...	" ...	Ratangarh... ...	2	"	" ...	410	3	8
23	" ...	" ...	Kurchanpur ...	1	"	" ...	400	2	5
24	" ...	" ...	Langar	1	"	" ...	425	1	2
		Total Sh	ahzádpur Zails ...	...	...	...	2,842	15	58

STATEMENT C—CONCLUDED.

Detail of Outstanding Zaildári Jágírs of Ambála District—concluded.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
								Total number of existing	
Serial No. of Zail.	Tahsíl.	Name of superior jágír.	Name of Zail.	Number of villages (whole or part).	Year of status.	Rate of commutation paid per rupee of revenue.	Revenue, including commutation.	Families.	Sharers.
25	Naráingarh	Kotáha (Morni) ...	Baloti	1	1847	2 annas ...	120	4	15
26	" ...	" ...	Dudhgarh	1	"	" ...	130	1	1
27	" ...	" ...	Kothi	2	"	" ...	175	2	6
		Total Kotáha Morni Zails ...		...	...	...	425	7	22
28	Jagádhri...	Buria	Kheri	1	1847	2 annas ...	246	2	6
29	" ...	"	Bhutmájra... ...	1	"	" ...	350	1	1
30	" ...	"	Telipur	1	"	" ...	363	9	17
31	" ...	"	Chachron	1	"	" ...	93	1	2
32	" ...	"	Chhota Topra ...	1	"	" ...	194	3	4
33	" ...	"	Chota Kanwari ...	1	"	" ...	700	4	5
34	" ...	"	Ratauli	1	"	" ...	607	5	14
35	" ...	"	Ror Chappar ...	1	"	" ...	277	8	24
36	" ...	"	Sassoli	1	"	" ...	1,340	10	19
37	" ...	"	Kansapur	1	"	" ...	658	2	5
38	" ...	"	Kalanpur	1	"	" ...	435	5	25
39	" ...	"	Kanjhel Kambohan	1	"	" ...	379	9	14
40	" ...	"	Khera	1	"	" ...	712	3	7
		Total Buria Zails ...		...	...	...	6,354	62	143
		Total Zails of District Ambala ...		...	...	...	15,519	204	495

ABSTRACT OF AMBALA JAGIRS.

			Rs.
Major Jágírs by Statement A		... ...	2,55,811
Pattídári	ditto	B	3,05,095
Zaildári	ditto	C	15,519
Total assigned to jágírdárs, inclusive of commutation			5,76,425

STATISTICAL TABLES

APPENDED TO THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

AMBALA DISTRICT.

(INDEX ON REVERSE.)

STATISTICAL TABLES.

Table No. II,—showing DEVELOPMENT.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DETAILS.	1868-69.	1873-74.	1878-79.	1883-84.	1888-89.	1891-92.
Population	1,028,418	1,028,418	1,067,263	1,067,263	1,032,744	1,033,427
Cultivated acres	945,526	959,708	951,890	975,599	955,994	970,243
Irrigated acres	131,682	178,900	173,499	86,602	44,273	51,553
,, (from Government works)	9,272	6,042	22,463	3,199	2,390	2,944
Assessed land revenue, Rs.	12,94,954	13,47,841	13,30,916	13,29,651	13,84,182	13,83,601
Revenue from land, Rs.	6,83,472	7,50,255	7,79,374	7,81,482	8,63,557	8,72,325
Gross revenue, Rs.	8,66,210	10,00,863	11,81,386	11,48,204	13,18,707	13,06,947
Number of kine	494,298	449,075	340,270	208,103	415,572	491,689
,, ,, sheep and goats	96,337	128,884	131,492	83,356	175,486	147,474
,, ,, camels	558	621	112	254	739	837
Miles of metalled roads	294	121	191	164	165	166
,, ,, unmetalled roads		426	468	495	491	492
,, ,, railways	50	64	64	42	42	90
Police staff	1,147	1,206	1,158	1,161	969	930
Prisoners convicted	3,381	4,504	3,650	3,133	2,810	2,653
Civil suits, number	7,177	9,523	14,175	10,866	9,722	11,288
,, value in rupees	3,60,392	4,92,568	7,62,366	6,87,785	10,75,344	10,28,719
Municipalities, number	...	7	11	11	8	8
,, income in rupees	28,316	58,965	59,473	83,132	1,01,703	1,12,890
Dispensaries—number of	4	4	5	5	6	6
,, —patients	42,584	41,227	69,066	76,265	88,480	88,032
Schools—number of	114	90	89	82	95	113
,, —scholars	5,138	6,044	5,626	5,684	5,910	7,445

NOTE.—The figures are taken from Revenue and Administration Reports. The district was reduced in 1889 by the transfer of 89 villages, with an area of 214 square miles and a population of 34,519, from the Pípli tahsíl to the Karnál District.

Table No. III,—showing RAINFALL.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
	Annual rainfall in tenths of an inch.																				
Rain Gauge Station.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1883-84.	1884-85.	1885-86.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	Average.
Ambála	282	434	404	310	259	186	347	234	394	207	190	163	484	340	315	407	532	226	495	326	327
Kharar	440	417	163	289	258	209	232	186	370	317	159	161	472	404	387	398	455	211	362	226	301
Rúpar	313	345	206	336	182	169	312	198	335	302	242	142	404	262	302	328	420	320	316	271	285
Naráingarh	421	594	597	450	471	231	148	113	176	159	174	133	653	453	622	350	533	264	580	412	377
Jagádhri	366	537	574	521	485	335	294	304	333	321	288	250	571	426	312	427	527	284	480	398	402
Pípli	120	340	390	296	269	184	215	227	372	251	206	116	415	346	...	394	335	245	404	245	283

Note.—These figures are taken from Assessment Reports, and Table No. IV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. IIIA,—showing RAINFALL at HEAD-QUARTERS.

1	2	3	1	2	3
	Annual averages.			Annual averages.	
Months.	Number of rainy days in each month—1877 to 1888.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month—33 to 37 years ending 1888.	Months.	Number of rainy days in each month—1877 to 1888.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month—33 to 37 years ending 1888.
January	2	14	October	1	6
February	2	15	November	...	2
March	1	11	December	1	7
April	1	6			
May	2	10	1st October to 1st January	2	15
June	3	40	1st January to 1st April ...	5	40
July	9	116	1st April to 1st October ...	26	299
August	7	86			
September	4	41	Whole year	33	354

Note.—These figures are taken from the Tables on pages 72 and 344 of "The climates and weather of India," by Mr. H. F. Blanford, published in 1889.

Table No. IIIB,—showing RAINFALL at TAHSIL STATIONS.

1	2	3	4	5
	Average fall in tenths of an inch, from 1872-73 to 1891-1892.			
Tahsil Stations.	1st October to 1st January.	1st January to 1st April.	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.
Kharar	13	32	256	301
Rúpar	11	34	240	285
Naráingarh	6	43	328	377
Jagádhri	16	50	336	402
Pípli	11	31	241	283

Table No. V,—showing the DISTRIBUTION of POPULATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Details.	District.	Tahsil Ambala.	Tahsil Kharar.	Tahsil Rúpar.	Tahsil Naráingarh.	Tahsil Jagádhri.	Tahsil Pípli.
Total square miles	2,412	355	369	288	435	406	559
Cultivated square miles	1,516	278	237	191	217	266	327
Culturable square miles	304	34	26	19	22	44	159
Square miles under crops (average)	1,434	249	231	203	199	256	296
Total population	1,033,427	230,567	168,642	146,816	141,326	168,634	177,442
Urban population	139,685	79,294	...	8,693	10,445	19,838	21,595
Rural population	893,562	151,273	168,642	138,123	130,881	148,796	155,847
Total population per square mile	428	649	457	509	325	415	317
Rural population per square mile	371	426	457	480	301	366	279
Towns and Villages. Over 10,000 souls	5	2	...	...	1	1	1
Towns and Villages. 5,000 to 10,000	3	...	...	1	...	1	1
Towns and Villages. 3,000 to 5,000	14	1	5	1	2	3	2
Towns and Villages. 2,000 to 3,000	25	9	3	...	4	3	6
Towns and Villages. 1,000 to 2,000	125	28	26	23	19	15	14
Towns and Villages. 500 to 1,000	343	50	58	63	41	60	71
Towns and Villages. Under 500	1,600	198	278	269	244	290	321
Total	2,115	288	370	357	311	373	416
Occupied houses ... Towns	22,509	13,291	..	1,312	1,451	3,253	3,202
Occupied houses ... Villages ...	135,193	27,210	30,172	21,529	16,853	18,429	21,000
Resident families ... Towns	33,658	18,751	...	1,937	2,672	4,912	5,356
Resident families ... Villages ...	204,401	36,523	38,630	30,772	29,097	33,307	33,072

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables I and III of the Census Report of 1891.

Table No. VI,—showing MIGRATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
			Males per 1,000 of both sexes.		Distribution of immigrants by tahsils.					
Districts.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Ambala.	Kharar.	Rúpar.	Naráingarh.	Jagádhri.	Pípli.
Delhi	1,433	560	582	631	959	43	181	16	82	152
Karnál	15,532	16,353	367	349	2,730	121	206	247	972	11,256
Ludhiána	5,923	5,604	420	361	631	1,026	3,048	104	50	64
Simla	1,312	2,333	396	731	348	113	437	396	15	3
Jullundur	2,080	1,958	659	442	732	212	981	54	58	43
Hoshiárpur	5,576	3,903	554	340	352	526	4,392	141	61	104
Amritsar	1,095	946	753	476	374	96	374	50	81	120
Siálkot	1,064	624	634	561	753	38	159	7	41	66
Lahore	966	1,618	639	591	595	22	218	28	65	38
Ferozepore	633	1,614	649	532	388	49	124	9	24	39
Native State	33,237	67,150	371	366	7,956	10,710	6,340	2,639	1,393	4,199
N.-W. P. and Oudh	31,443	18,000	582	444	15,671	466	4,854	889	5,846	3,717
Rájpútána	1,079	...	624	...	684	25	36	91	69	174
Europe, &c.	2,228	...	871	...	2,192	5	22	...	7	2

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Census Report of 1881. There are no corresponding figures at present available in the tables for the Census of 1891.

Table No. VII,—showing RELIGION and SEX.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	District.			Tahsils.						
Religion.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Ambala.	Kharar.	Rúpar.	Naráin-garh.	Jagádhri.	Pípli.	Villages.
Persons	1,033,427	...	...	230,567	168,642	146,816	141,326	168,634	177,442	893,562
Males	...	567,381	...	129,684	93,022	80,139	76,676	91,040	96,820	487,633
Females	...	...	466,046	100,883	75,620	66,677	64,650	77,594	80,622	405,929
Hindús	630,857	347,708	283,149	135,643	102,567	65,651	97,984	114,944	114,068	559,512
Sikhs	93,679	52,914	40,765	13,559	31,982	33,858	3,639	4,612	6,029	89,085
Jains	2,823	1,564	1,259	1,341	270	227	450	493	42	688
Mussalmáns ...	300,856	160,825	140,031	75,089	33,664	47,029	39,252	48,560	57,262	244,017
Christians	5,204	4,365	839	4,928	159	51	1	24	41	260
Parsís	7	4	3	6	...	...	...	1	...	...
Others	1	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...

Note.—These figures are taken from Table VI of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. VIII,—showing LANGUAGES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Distribution by Tahsils.					
Language.	District.	Ambála.	Kharar.	Rúpar.	Naráingarh	Jagádhri.	Pípli.
Hindustáni—Hindi	683,879	210,341	3,705	502	132,597	167,270	169,464
Bagri	751	674	11	20	...	10	36
Punjábi	337,123	14,117	164,519	146,186	3,291	1,173	7,837
Pashtu	200	140	3	8	6	20	23
Pahári	6,075	148	298	75	5,403	123	28
Kashmíri	114	86	...	1	9	18	...
Nepalese	14	5	...	...	3	5	1
Persian	24	20	...	...	2	...	2
English	4,728	4,640	25	17	1	5	40

Note.—These figures are taken from Table X of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. IX,—showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5
		Total numbers.		
Serial No. in Census Table No. XVI.	Caste or Tribe.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
	Total population	1,033,427	567,381	466,046
A. 3	Pathán	8,618	4,714	3,904
A. 1	Ját	154,394	87,910	66,484
A. 1	Rájpút	87,768	47,667	40,101
A. 1	Gujar	49,125	26,955	22,170
E. 45	Saini	28,024	15,182	12,842
A. 2	Mali	36,008	19,805	16,203
A. 2	Arain	33,037	17,613	15,424
A. 2	Kamboh	13,076	7,255	5,821
A. 2	Shaikh	20,262	10,977	9,285
B. 5	Brahman	58,125	32,032	26,093
A. 2	Saiyad	7,289	3,554	3,535
B. 6	Faqír	21,481	12,461	9,020
D. 18	Nai	14,593	8,046	6,547
E. 45	Jogi and Rawal	11,033	5,926	6,107
C. 14	Bania	37,230	20,327	16,903
C. 14	Khatri	7,002	4,046	2,956
D. 39	Chuhra	44,067	23,712	20,355
D. 38	Chamár...	148,363	79,710	68,653
D. 23	Juláha	25,013	13,365	11,648
D. 26	Gadria	6,686	3,495	3,191
D. 35	Jhínwar	45,747	24,826	20,921
D. 19	Lohár	17,573	9,503	8,070
D. 20	Tarkhán	25,963	14,353	11,610
D. 28	Kumhár	13,670	7,172	6,498
D. 24	Dhobi	5,090	2,736	2,354
D. 23	Chhímba	5,768	3,203	2,565
D. 25	Penja	7,297	3,967	3,330
D. 27	Teli	17,480	9,670	7,810
D. 36	Kalal	4,400	2,409	1,991
D. 19	Sunár	*6,804	3,809	2,995
C. 15	Nungar...	5,438	2,911	5,227

Note.—These figures have been taken from Table No. XVI of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. IXA,—showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No. in Census Table No. XVI.	Caste or Tribe.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
A. 3	Biloch	626	392	234
D. 38	Mochi	944	538	406
A. 2	Kanet	2,639	1,405	1,234
B. 8	Mirási	4,351	2,319	2,032
A. 2	Ahir	1,897	1,154	743
A. 1	Mughal	863	460	403
D. 37	Qassáb	5,050	2,699	2,351
D. 35	Mallah	942	486	456
A. 1	Dogar	977	542	435
C. 15	Maniar	903	497	406
B. 6	Bharái	3,485	1,843	1,642
C. 15	Labána	1,530	718	632
A. 1	Ror	2,003	1,051	1,042
D. 38	Meg	907	467	440
D. 22	Darzi	1,350	678	672
B. 8	Bhat	715	391	324
D. 23	Lilari	1,620	871	749
E. 45	Sánsi	1,166	624	592
C. 14	Sud	1,706	903	803
A. 2	Rawat	4,088	2,368	1,720
D. 38	Khatik	1,541	804	737
C. 14	Bhabra	825	451	374
E. 46	Bazigar	696	370	326
B. 9	Káyath	1,123	637	486
D. 35	Bhatyara	615	308	307
D. 20	Ráj	856	463	393
C. 16	Banjara	2,126	1,143	983
E. 45	Kanchán	536	178	358
E. 47	Nat	1,481	607	821
D. 38	Kori	1,278	781	497
A. 2	Lodha	1,323	705	618
D. 35	Bharbhunja	1,243	685	558
A. 2	Kurmi	163	84	79
E. 38	Jaiswara	418	255	163
B. 9	Bangali	186	103	83

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XVI of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. X,—showing CIVIL CONDITION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Details.	Unmarried.		Married.		Widowed.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Actual figures for religions.	All religions	276,517	145,771	244,536	240,906	46,328	79,369
	Hindús	170,243	88,143	148,551	146,419	28,914	48,587
	Sikhs	24,118	11,059	24,036	23,346	4,760	6,360
	Jains	709	349	669	639	186	271
	Mussalmáns	77,556	45,820	70,841	70,130	12,428	24,081
	Christians	3,889	400	436	370	40	69
	Parsis	1	...	3	2	...	1
	Others	1	...	...	...	...	...
Distribution of actual figures for ages.	All ages	276,517	145,771	244,536	240,906	46,328	79,369
	0—9	146,056	121,712	2,433	6,555	84	112
	10—14	52,757	20,318	13,450	27,013	319	606
	15—20	32,670	2,784	29,970	49,346	1,361	2,022
	20—24	18,352	334	38,933	44,494	2,777	3,437
	25—29	10,257	222	43,729	41,916	4,405	6,557
	30—39	86,513	171	59,779	44,326	9,747	17,573
	40—49	4,234	118	32,249	19,235	10,479	21,225
	50—59	2,437	77	17,205	6,444	10,177	17,625
	60 and over	1,101	35	6,788	1,577	6,979	10,212

Note.—These figures are taken from Statements A to J of Table No. VIII of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. XI,—showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	TOTAL BIRTHS REGISTERED.			TOTAL DEATHS REGISTERED.			TOTAL DEATHS FROM		
YEARS.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fever.
1882	18,703	15,880	34,583	15,414	13,037	28,451	6	1,248	19,641
1883	21,148	18,079	39,227	13,043	11,113	24,156	2	940	16,575
1884	19,854	16,556	36,410	30,511	27,506	58,017	6	2,621	48,162
1885	15,475	13,079	28,548	15,579	12,794	28,373	44	216	22,926
1886	18,862	15,520	34,382	16,142	13,273	29,415	2	272	23,301
1887	17,607	14,379	21,986	20,997	17,169	38,166	380	801	30,481
1888	16,471	13,162	29,633	15,353	12,118	27,471	50	1,024	21,158
1889	18,465	15,124	33,589	14,169	11,755	25,924	42	291	20,079
1890	17,112	14,244	31,356	22,932	19,509	42,411	1,161	1,041	32,494
1891	17,109	14,729	31,836	17,087	14,798	31,885	143	354	24,655

These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VII, VIII, IX, of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XIA,—showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MONTH.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
January	2,533	2,068	1,455	2,862	2,164	2,386	2,684	1,911	2,913	2,335
February	1,613	2,033	1,475	1,940	2,135	2,126	2,164	1,631	2,038	2,311
March	1,811	2,553	1,726	1,665	1,930	2,552	2,036	1,705	2,065	1,934
April	2,064	1,720	2,010	1,728	1,885	2,709	1,878	1,635	2,644	1,626
May	2,321	1,885	2,507	2,172	2,351	3,006	2,203	1,934	2,840	2,037
June	2,560	2,432	2,461	1,898	2,001	3,094	2,522	1,887	2,538	2,058
July	2,100	1,957	2,165	1,632	1,765	2,285	1,807	1,594	1,966	2,572
August	2,086	1,966	3,033	1,796	1,952	2,037	1,705	1,898	3,249	1,741
September	3,242	2,025	8,826	2,849	2,984	4,353	2,246	2,328	6,912	2,780
October	2,647	1,912	17,025	3,033	3,710	5,881	3,235	3,069	6,827	4,306
November	2,436	1,867	9,598	3,119	3,339	4,428	2,446	3,102	5,021	4,423
December	3,038	1,988	5,736	2,779	3,099	3,329	2,545	3,230	3,428	3,762
Total	28,451	24,156	58,017	28,373	29,415	38,166	27,471	25,924	42,411	31,885

These figures are taken from Table No, III of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XIB,—showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MONTH.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
January	1,827	1,194	979	2,470	1,685	1,900	2,187	1,516	2,353	1,818
February	1,149	1,462	950	1,604	1,661	1,678	1,712	1,263	1,603	1,787
March	1,260	1,695	1,173	1,349	1,524	2,016	1,578	1,278	1,616	1,529
April	1,338	1,170	1,223	1,403	1,462	2,197	1,422	1,247	2,057	1,324
May	1,585	1,279	1,438	1,754	1,827	2,460	1,657	1,475	2,172	1,559
June	1,732	1,663	1,394	1,584	1,666	2,430	1,914	1,420	1,857	1,644
July	1,359	1,242	1,193	1,321	1,339	1,757	1,287	1,191	1,299	2,060
August	1,327	1,291	2,064	1,373	1,459	1,440	1,191	1,390	1,956	1,275
September	2,213	1,289	7,588	2,239	2,379	3,337	1,712	1,768	5,007	1,877
October	1,823	1,287	16,137	3,119	3,061	4,848	2,542	2,400	5,644	3,315
November	1,783	1,275	8,870	2,464	2,676	3,672	1,964	2,478	4,165	3,523
December	2,245	1,428	5,153	2,246	2,562	2,746	1,992	2,653	2,765	2,944
Total ...	19,641	16,575	48,162	22,926	23,301	30,481	21,158	20,079	32,494	24,655

These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XII,—showing INFIRMITIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Year of Census.	INSANE.		BLIND.		DEAF AND DUMB.		LEPERS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1881	338	182	3,012	2,990	948	477	443	66
1891	280	139	2,624	2,492	747	367	204	45

The figures for 1891 are taken from Tables Nos. XII to XV of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. XIII,—showing EDUCATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	LEARNING.		LITERATE.		ILLITERATE.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
All religions	6,298	256	35,651	920	525,432	464,870
Hindús	3,720	30	23,064	215	320,924	282,904
Sikhs	520	15	3,234	122	49,160	40,628
Jains	141	...	877	11	546	1,248
Mussalmáns	1,778	95	4,602	112	154,445	139,824
Christians	139	116	3,870	458	356	265
Parsis	...	...	3	2	1	1
Other religions	...	...	1	...	...	...

These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. XIV,—showing DETAILS of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	CULTIVATED.				UNCULTIVATED.						
	Irrigated.					*Uncultivated other than Forests.*					
YEAR.	By Government works.	By private individuals.	Unirrigated.	Total cultivated.	Forests.	Culturable.	Unculturable.	Total uncultivated.	Total area assessed.	Gross assessment.	Unappropriated culturable waste property of Government.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.
1887-88	2,407	42,706	947,919	993,032	11,829	282,625	393,178	687,632	1,690,488	13,59,115	2,236
1888-89	2,390	41,883	911,721	955,994	12,019	206,558	369,511	588,088	1,537,655	13,84,182	2,586
1889-90	2,881	47,311	909,960	960,152	12,019	201,881	370,064	583,964	1,537,598	13,80,368	2,654
1890-91	2,967	47,432	913,936	964,335	12,019	198,131	369,519	579,669	1,537,047	13,80,395	2,634
1891-92	2,944	48,609	918,689	970,242	12,019	194,861	367,032	573,912	1,532,135	13,83,601	2,726
TAHSIL DETAILS FOR 1891-92.											
Ambála...	...	1,294	173,733	175,027	...	21,916	30,046	51,962	226,989	233,826	...
Kharar	...	10,919	142,327	153,246	...	16,934	66,019	82,953	236,199	256,782	118
Rúpar	157	14,988	107,199	122,344	...	12,281	49,998	62,279	184,623	226,778	14
Naráingarh	...	3,332	135,817	139,149	...	13,958	1,25,575	139,533	278,682	191,012	...
Jagádhri	2,782	5,342	162,567	170,691	12,019	27,991	49,314	89,324	247,996	238,869	361
Pípli	5	12,734	197,016	209,785	...	1,01,781	46,080	147,861	357,646	236,334	1,606

NOTE.—(1) These Figures are taken from Tables Nos. III and VII of the Revenue Report. The district was reduced in 1888-89, by the transfer of 89 villages, from the Pípli tahsíl the Karnál district.

NOTE.—(2) The area of the Kalesar forest in Jagádhri (column 6) is excluded from the total assessed area in column 10.

Table No. XV,—showing TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1891-92.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	Tahsil Ambala.					Tahsil Kharar.					Tahsil Rupar.					Tahsil Naraingarh.				
Nature of Tenures.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.
Villages held on zamíndári tenure—					Rs.					Rs.					Rs.					Rs.
1. By one owner	...	...	...	...	...	5	5	1,910	382	347	1	1	172	172	38	16	16	8,819	551	186
2. By several owners	2	11	324	162	117	11	88	3,212	292	432	19	556	4,503	237	70	14	106	7,291	521	310
Villages held on pattidári tenure ...	10	468	3,940	394	275	9	353	7,423	825	442	5	225	1,673	335	190	17	939	14,364	845	524
Ditto bhaiáchára tenure ...	292	28,115	222,725	763	790	366	33,046	223,838	612	650	361	29,910	178,387	494	620	279	22,396	248,208	890	626
Lessees from Government without right of ownership	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total ...	304	28,594	226,989	746	769	391	33,492	236,373	605	657	386	30,692	184,735	479	587	326	23,457	278,682	855	856

Table No. XV,—showing TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1891-92—concluded.

	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
	TAHSIL JAGADHRI.					TAHSIL PIPLI.					TOTAL DISTRICT.				
NATURE OF TENURES.	Number of Villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area in each estate.	Average assessment in each estate.
Villages held on zamíndári tenure—					Rs.					Rs.					Rs.
1. By one owner	15	15	3,703	247	281	18	21	10,067	559	191	55	58	24,671	449	226
2. By several owners	20	344	14,166	708	388	16	558	7,015	438	143	82	1,663	36,511	445	254
Villages held on pattidári tenure	335	21,441	233,025	695	654	105	3,850	59,609	568	263	481	27,276	320,034	665	548
Ditto bhaiáchára tenure	16	1,010	9,121	570	482	289	44,324	279,899	969	702	1,603	158,801	1,162,168	725	673
Lessees from Government without right of ownership	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	1,056	1,056	...	1	1	1,056	1,056	...
Total ...	386	22,810	260,015	674	619	429	48,754	357,646	834	551	2,222	187,799	1,544,440	695	619

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XVI,—showing the CULTIVATING OCCUPANCY of LAND in 1891-92.

1			2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
			TAHSIL AMBALA.		TAHSIL KHARAR.		TAHSIL RUPAR.		TAHSIL NARAINGARH.	
DETAILS.			Number of holdings.	Area.	Number of holdings.	Area.	Number of holdings.	Area.	Number of holdings.	Area.
Total area cultivated			68,087	175,027	52,896	153,246	57,466	123,324	49,783	139,149
Area cultivated by owners			29,203	110,988	30,494	112,254	33,791	93,614	22,162	84,402
Area cultivated by tenants free of rent			2,049	1,014	1,903	647	2,005	732	2,573	1,172
Area cultivated by tenants paying rent.	With right of occupancy.	Paying at revenue rates, with or without málikána ...	6,512	11,820	3,831	8,313	3,091	4,619	2,668	6,856
		Paying other cash rents ...	84	87	231	150	39	41	145	236
		Paying in kind, with or without an addition in cash ...	975	1,599	555	1,308	406	1,198	2,973	8,172
	Without right of occupancy.	Paying at revenue rates, with or without málikána ...	3,225	5,530	1,423	1,670	1,751	1,569	1,76[illegible]	2,569
		Paying other cash rents ...	6,491	11,256	3,952	6,575	6,934	7,678	2,98[illegible]	5,678
		Paying in kind, with or without an addition in cash ...	19,548	32,733	10,507	22,320	9,449	12,893	14,514	30,064
	Total held by tenants paying rent ...		36,835	63,025	20,499	40,345	21,670	27,998	25,048	53,575

1			10	11	12	13	14	15
			TAHSIL JAGADHRI.		TAHSIL PIPLI.		TOTAL OF THE DISTRICT.	
DETAILS.			Number of holdings.	Area.	Number of holdings.	Area.	Number of holdings.	Area.
Total area cultivated			56,970	170,691	60,544	209,885	345,746	970,243
Area cultivated by owners			18,640	89,886	27,881	139,954	162,171	631,098
Area cultivated by tenants free of rent			3,199	1,516	2,427	1,817	14,156	6,898
Area cultivated by tenants paying rent.	With right of occupancy.	Paying at revenue rates, with or without málikána ...	4,761	12,300	1,837	5,626	22,700	49,534
		Paying other cash rents ...	89	274	438	1,095	1,026	1,883
		Paying in kind, with or without an addition in cash ...	2,324	5,445	921	2,422	8,154	20,144
	Without right of occupancy.	Paying at revenue rates, with or without málikána ...	769	1,399	873	1,942	9,801	14,679
		Paying other cash rents ...	3,051	7,386	3,266	6,732	26,682	45,305
		Paying in kind with or without an addition in cash ...	24,137	52,485	22,901	50,197	101,056	200,701
	Total held by tenants paying rent ...		35,131	79,289	30,236	68,014	169 419	332,246

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII of the Revenue Report for 1891-92.

Table No. XVII,—showing Government lands.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	6
			ACRES HELD UNDER CULTIVATING LEASES.		REMAINING ACRES.			
	Number of estates.	Total acres.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	Under Forest Department.	Under other Departments.	Under Deputy Commissioner.	Average yearly income from 1886-87 to 1891-92.
Whole District	...	14,565	202	631	12,019	860	853	241

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXII of the Revenue Report for 1891-92.

Table No. XIX,—showing LAND acquired by Government.

1	2	3	4
Purpose for which acquired.	Acres acquired.	Compensation paid in rupees.	Reduction of revenue in rupees.
Roads	2,337	54,375	1,967
Canals	4,550	245,102	4,157
State Railways	1,531	122,247	900
Guaranteed Railways	1,165	31,122	1,330
Miscellaneous	11,627	350,265	1,220
Total	21,210	803,111	9,574

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXIV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XX,—showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	Cereals and Pulses.											Oil-seeds.				Fibres.		
Year.	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Maize.	Jowár.	Bájra.	Other cereals.	Gram.	Mung and Másh.	Peas, moth and other pulses.	Total cereals and pulses.	Linseed.	Til.	Rape and others.	Sugarcane.	Cotton.	Hemp.	Others.
1887-88	140,830	288,559	26,753	107,403	10,065	10,714	16,973	188,100	32,887	36,059	858,347	4,714	1,847	35,402	23,592	40,205	1,848	113
1888-89	123,474	269,126	28,930	116,594	5,348	8,677	13,297	176,320	34,344	37,329	813,439	6,090	1,768	31,641	27,601	47,044	1,718	89
1889-90	124,292	149,499	12,642	120,857	117,333	6,646	12,637	52,035	32,578	24,752	653,271	1,239	1,987	8,328	23,736	45,649	1,474	74
1890-91	74,572	257,639	23,846	104,482	126,292	3,720	24,806	177,271	34,627	36,312	863,567	4,786	2,193	35,575	19,283	42,077	1,812	56
1891-92	128,903	250,722	23,981	92,059	87,903	12,503	9,659	186,897	35,732	38,623	866,082	5,179	1,393	33,870	27,490	24,759	2,071	50
	Tahsil detail of 1891-92.																	
Ambála	30,540	51,923	4,218	13,183	16,043	625	584	34,121	4,701	7,968	163,906	1,068	149	5,567	3,254	3,508	500	5
Kharar	15,397	38,337	928	23,447	19,463	746	1,538	32,255	4,692	4,297	142,102	674	231	7,125	3,925	7,402	328	...
Rúpar	4,404	34,922	1,510	24,232	15,143	563	1,231	24,539	6,065	5,322	118,131	823	237	2,665	6,486	3,327	402	2
Naráingarh	18,424	30,199	2,153	9,836	10,182	3,593	1,963	25,613	5,111	6,759	113,833	782	340	4,783	2,602	4,582	147	1
Jagádhri	29,360	36,776	8,259	10,271	10,722	5,144	1,368	24,890	8,633	5,951	141,374	1,365	231	5,145	6,290	3,608	260	37
Pípli	30,378	58,566	6,915	11,090	16,150	1,832	2,975	44,478	6,528	8,324	187,636	467	205	8,585	4,933	2,332	432	5

Table No. XX,—showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
				Miscellaneous food crops.				Miscellaneous non-food crops.						Total of all crops.			
Year.	Indigo.	Tea.	Tobacco.	Fruits.	Carrots and Turnips.	Vegetables.	Others.	Poppy.	Safflower.	Turmeric.	Chillies.	Ginger and Spices.	Others.	Kharif.	Rabi.	Total.	Area on which these crops were grown.
1887-88	325	...	1,334	12,192	193	2,349	667	4,087	4,781	1	515	237	112,136	520,246	584,635	1,104,881	898,497
1888-89	1,092	...	1,054	12,347	225	1,418	397	4,834	4,260	1	397	214	118,070	518,134	555,555	1,073,689	879,876
1889-90	1,874	...	2,033	8,971	149	2,278	3,346	3,179	849	4	405	305	2,964	513,159	248,956	762,115	705,831
1890-91	2,089	...	1,547	11,672	479	3,925	614	3,578	3,231	3	570	329	3,554	465,233	535,707	1,000,940	828,962
1891-92	1,389	2	1,044	12,895	792	3,185	324	3,089	1,518	1	460	377	2,877	451,218	538,529	989,747	838,196
						Tahsil detail for 1891-92.											
Ambála	26	...	50	1,602	17	948	10	61	256	...	25	23	537	77,254	104,358	181,612	151,775
Kharar	27	...	288	3,629	40	305	1	219	373	...	180	40	256	80,452	86,893	167,345	138,334
Rúpar	1,321	...	320	746	107	312	37	6	93	...	96	18	325	67,351	68,101	135,454	110,067
Naráingarh	5	2	140	2,280	52	163	6	392	479	1	33	87	438	62,051	69,099	131,150	115,634
Jagádhri...	1	...	128	3,328	61	635	156	979	87	...	16	57	128	80,756	83,130	163,886	140,992
Pípli	9	...	174	1,310	415	822	144	1,376	230	...	110	152	993	83,354	126,946	210,300	181,465

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIC. of the Revenue Report. The area on which crops are grown in the district was reduced from 1889-90 by the transfer from tahsil Pípli of 89 villages, with a cultivated area of 45,500 acres.

Table No. XXI, showing PREVAILING RENT-RATES during 1891-92.

1	2	3			4	5			6	7			8	9			
		RENT COMMONLY PAID BY TENANTS HOLDING FROM YEAR TO YEAR WITHOUT LEASE OR RIGHT OF OCCUPANCY.															
		FOR LAND IRRIGATED BY WELLS.				FOR LAND IRRIGATED BY CANALS.				FOR ALLUVIAL LAND ADVANTAGED BY RIVER FLOOD.				FOR LAND DEPENDENT ENTIRELY ON RAIN. *Best cultivation.*			
TAHSIL.	Division of Tahsíl.	Cash rent per acre.			Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rent per acre.			Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rent per acre.			Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rent per acre.			Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.
		Rs.	A.	P.		Rs.	A.	P.		Rs.	A.	P.		Rs.	A.	P.	
Ambála	......	12	0	0	50	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	6	0	40
Kharar	......	12	0	0	50	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9	0	0	50
Rúpar	......	12	8	0	50	...	...	...	...	8	0	0	50	8	0	0	50
Naráingarh	......	10	0	0	50	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	0	0	50
Jagádhri	......	12	0	0	40	...	...	...	...	5	0	0	40	8	9	0	40
Pípli	Khádir, Bangar and Northern Chachra.	10	0	0	40	...	...	...	...	9	6	4	40	6	6	4	40
	Southern Chachra	6	6	4	33	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	6	4	25

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIII of the Revenue Report, 1891-92.

Table No. XXII. showing NUMBER of STOCK in 1891-92.

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Detail.		Cows and bullocks.	Buffaloes.	Horses and ponies.	Mules and donkeys.	Sheep and goats.	Camels.	Carts.	Ploughs.	Boats.
Total of district		491,689	161,329	8,536	12,868	147,474	837	22,765	94,027	95
Tahsils.	Ambála	82,692	29,169	1,407	2,585	18,863	27	5,368	17,334	...
	Kharar	71,585	25,400	1,228	1,826	30,157	236	5,347	14,874	...
	Rúpar	58,733	17,599	809	1,227	21,132	435	3,718	13,848	51
	Naráingarh ...	76,111	23,754	950	1,714	33,953	43	2,062	14,025	...
	Jagádhri	91,499	26,567	1,846	2,185	22,014	41	2,716	16,300	37
	Pípli	111,069	38,840	2,296	3,331	31,355	55	3,554	17,646	7

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIV of the Revenue Report for 1891-92.

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1	2	3	4	5
		Males above 15 years of age.		
No.	Nature of occupations.	Towns.	Villages.	Total.
1	Total population	54,335	321,459	375,794
2	Occupation specified	49,386	292,412	341,798
3	Agricultural whether simple or combined ...	5,506	169,994	175,500
4	Civil administration	3,048	3,943	6,991
5	Army	3,421	100	3,521
6	Religion	1,080	5,198	6,278
7	Barbers	503	3,336	3,839
8	Other professions	770	1,820	2,590
9	Money-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c. ...	1,221	2,467	3,688
10	Dealers in grain and flour	2,344	8,033	10,377
11	Corn-grinders, parchers, &c.	461	1,027	1,488
12	Confectioners, green-grocers, &c.	1,347	497	1,844
13	Carriers and boatmen	1,251	2,280	3,531
14	Land owners	2,176	96,979	99,155
15	Tenants	2,149	45,266	47,415
16	Joint cultivators	309	10,817	11,126
17	Agricultural labourers	228	9,859	10,087
18	Pastoral	231	3,725	3,956
19	Cooks and other servants	3,875	2,159	6,034
20	Water-carriers	1,439	6,296	7,735
21	Sweepers and scavengers	1,055	8,039	9,094
22	Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c. ...	1,134	2,494	3,628
23	Workers in leather	329	468	797
24	Boot-makers	843	5,518	6,361
25	Workers in wool and pashm	20	487	507
26	" " Silk	103	34	137
27	" " Cotton	3,318	16,768	20,086
28	" " Wood	1,273	5,622	6,895
29	Potters	512	2,663	3,175
30	Workers and dealers in gold and silver	542	1,618	2,160
31	Workers in iron	719	3,068	3,787
32	General labourers	3,563	18,914	22,477
33	Beggars, fakírs, and the like	2,589	11,787	14,376

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIIA. of the Census Report for 1881. There are no corresponding figures in the Census Report for 1891, but it is probable that no great change has taken place during the decade, as the total population of the district has remained nearly stationary between 1881 and 1891.

Table No. XXIV, showing LARGE INDUSTRIES.

1	2	3	4	5	
				Yearly Out-turn.	
District or town.	Name of factories or mills.	Capital (if a Joint Stock Company.)	Average number of persons employed daily.	Quantity.	Value in Rupees.
Ambála city ...	Cotton Press of West's ... ... Patent Press Company, Limited...	Cannot be fixed, as Ambála is only a Branch of the Company (approximate, Rs. 1,20,000.)	40 during working seasons.	Bales of cotton 2,500 ,, fodder 3,500	1,76,000 17,500
,,	Darri manufactory	Rs. 4,000	23	4,100 square yards	6,900
,,	,, ,, ...	,, 4,000	22	3,200 ,,	5,450
Jagádhri ...	Sugar-cane Press manufactory ...	,, 27,000	20	75 mills	1,880

Note.—These figures are taken from the annual statement of Large Industries for 1891. A table showing the details of minor factories in 1881-82 was given as No. XXIV of the first edition of the Ambála Gazetteer. No similar returns are now prepared.

Table No. XXVI, showing RETAIL PRICES.

1	2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16	
	Number of Sers and Chittaks per Rupee.																													
Year.	Wheat.		Barley.		Gram.		Indian corn.		Jowár.		Bájra.		Rice (fine).		Urd dál.		Potatoes.		Cotton cleaned.		Sugar refined.		Ghi.		Firewood.		Tobacco.		Salt (Lahori).	
	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.
1882-83	24	8	38	0	33	0	33	8	38	0	26	0	10	0	18	0	14	0	4	0	3	0	1	11	140	0	6	0	14	4
1883-84	22	8	32	0	31	8	29	0	32	0	24	0	8	8	15	0	18	0	3	12	3	0	1	11	150	0	8	0	14	0
1884-85	26	0	32	0	37	0	43	0	60	0	34	0	10	0	20	9	16	0	3	2	2	12	1	9	140	0	8	0	14	0
1885-86	22	0	36	15	30	0	32	0	26	0	24	0	*12	0	20	0	...	...	†12	0	7	‡8	1	4	140	0	8	0	13	12
1886-87	18	0	24	0	24	0	20	0	16	0	14	0	*12	0	16	0	...	...	†12	0	10	‡8	1	9	140	0	10	0	14	0
1887-88	17	0	24	0	26	0	22	0	21	0	16	0	*12	0	16	12	...	...	†8	0	12	‡	1	5	140	0	8	0	12	0
1888-89	22	0	24	0	28	0	35	0	25	0	16	0	*10	14	19	0	...	...	†8	0	14	‡	1	5	120	0	8	0	12	0
1889-90	19	0	23	0	23	0	25	0	22	0	20	0	*10	14	14	0	...	...	†8	0	9	‡	1	4	150	0	8	3	13	0
1890-91	18	0	24	0	24	0	20	0	16	0	...	...	*9	0	10	14	...	...	†8	0	8	‡4	1	6	140	0	8	0	12	9
1891-92	17	0	24	0	23	0	24	0	19	0	17	0	*10	0	16	0	...	...	†8	0	11	‡	1	8	130	0	8	0	12	8

* Common.
† Uncleaned.
‡ Gur.

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXVII, showing PRICE of LABOUR.

1	2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12
YEAR.	WAGES OF LABOUR PER DAY.								Carts per day.		CAMELS PER DAY.				Donkeys per score per day.		BOATS PER DAY.				REMARKS.
	Skilled.				*Unskilled.*																
	Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.				Highest.		Lowest.				Highest.		Lowest.		
	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	
1882-83	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1883-84	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1884-85	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1885-86	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1886-87	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1887-88	0	6	0	5	0	3	...	...	0	14	0	8	0	6	3	12	...	...	...	...	
1888-89	0	5	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	14	0	6	...	...	3	12	2	9	1	8	
1889-90	0	5	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	7	0	6	...	...	3	12	2	0	1	8	
1890-91	0	5	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	7	0	6	...	...	3	12	2	0	1	8	
1891-92	0	6	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	7	0	6	...	...	3	12	2	0	1	8	

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLVI of the Administration Report. In column 6 the figures represent the hire of two bullocks up to 1888-89 and of one bullock from 1889-90.

Table No. XXVIII, showing REVENUE Collected.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
					Excise.				
Year.	Fixed land revenue.	Fluctuating and miscellaneous land revenue.	Tribute.	Local rates.	Spirits.	Drugs.	Stamps.	Total collections.	Remarks.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1882-83	7,86,523	5,450	...	1,05,876	66,301	41,946	1,48,112	11,54,217	
1883-84	7,81,482	3,516	...	1,05,962	54,910	44,955	1,57,379	11,48,204	
1884-85	7,56,034	6,448	...	1,30,898	54,782	40,365	1,45,038	11,33,565	
1885-86	8,13,368	6,398	...	1,30,819	59,949	33,290	1,50,893	11,94,717	
1886-87	7,75,950	5,201	...	1,29,997	62,479	39,024	1,68,772	11,81,423	
1887-88	8,57,670	5,887	...	1,45,571	65,259	39,605	1,69,335	12,83,327	
1888-89	8,58,487	5,385	...	1,50,052	74,716	40,761	1,89,306	13,18,707	
1889-90	8,32,099	6,755	...	1,40,046	94,854	40,269	1,80,776	12,94,799	
1890-91 ... ...*	8,76,510	9,705	...	1,47,444	84,327	39,207	1,60,429	13,17,622	
1891-92	8,60,020	11,118	...	1,45,910	87,410	41,106	1,61,383	13,06,947	

949875
876510
73365
9705
63660

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Revenue Report, and from Table No. I of the Excise and Appendix A of the Stamp Report. The amounts of Rs. 63,660 collected in 1890-91 and Rs. 63,114 in 1891-92, on account of contributions from *jagirdárs* to the cost of settlement operations, have been excluded from the figures as not being ordinary items of revenue.

Table No. XXIX, showing REVENUE derived from LAND.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
			FLUCTUATING REVENUE.			MISCELLANEOUS REVENUE.							
						Grazing dues.							
YEAR.	Fixed land revenue (demand).	Fluctuating and miscellaneous land revenue (collections.)	Revenue of alluvial lands.	Other items.	Total fluctuating revenue.	By enumeration of cattle.	By grazing leases.	Gold washing and water-mills.	Sales of wood from rakhs and forests.	Sajji.	Other items.	Total miscellaneous revenue.	REMARKS.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1882-83	7,88,058	4,419	228	2,653	2,881	...	245	574	...	...	719	1,538	
1883-84	7,90,012	2,541	476	361	837	...	271	522	...	...	911	1,704	
1884-85	7,89,502	5,288	1,181	729	1,910	...	229	534	...	...	2,615	3,378	
1885-86	7,88,941	5,704	15	894	909	...	135	491	...	...	4,169	4,795	
1886-87	7,89,891	4,315	179	1,016	1,195	...	207	522	...	...	2,391	3,120	
1887-88	8,55,136	5,878	122	1,854	1,976	...	100	588	...	...	3,214	3,902	
1888-89	8,59,240	5,125	...	1,525	1,525	...	60	509	...	...	3,031	3,600	
1889-90	8,60,965	6,744	450	1,811	2,261	...	217	500	...	...	3,766	4,483	
1890-91	8,62,238	9,682	579	1,747	2,326	...	70	454	...	...	6,832	7,356	
1891-92	8,61,540	10,785	1,126	2,863	3,989	...	...	490	...	...	6,306	6,796	
TAHSIL DETAILS FOR 1891-92.													
Ambála	1,52,096	2,717	617	96	713	...	...	...	...	...	2,004	2,004	
Kharar	1,45,487	2,234	37	596	633	...	...	490	...	...	1,111	1,601	
Rúpar	1,54,579	1,016	200	107	307	...	...	...	...	...	709	709	
Naráingarh	1,13,059	1,238	121	593	714	...	...	...	...	...	524	524	
Jagádhri	1,33,561	1,488	117	675	792	...	...	...	...	...	696	696	
Pípli	1,62,758	2,092	34	796	830	...	...	...	...	...	1,262	1,262	

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XVIIIA and XX of the Revenue Report.
See note under Table No. XXVIII regarding the exclusion from the figures of extraordinary items of revenue in 1890-91 and 1891-92 on account of contributions realised from *jágírdárs* in those years towards the cost of settlement operations.

Table No. XXX,—showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE, in 1891-92.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	TOTAL AREA AND REVENUE ASSIGNED.								DISTRIBUTION OF			
	Villages.		*Fractional portions of villages.*		*Plots.*		*Total.*		*In perpetuity free of conditions.*		*In perpetuity subject to conditions.*	
TAHSILS.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.
Ambála ...	41,962	44,062	36,822	46,356	1,646	2,049	80,430	92,467	79,490	91,025	61	105
Kharar ...	66,957	83,909	28,537	38,943	833	1,531	96,327	1,24,383	94,552	1,06,732	1,180	16,594
Rúpar	82,817	74,987	6,644	7,382	759	1,442	91,220	83,811	88,031	80,637	671	266
Naráingarh ...	1,35,024	58,133	3,334	28,018	1,255	1,823	1,66,613	87,974	1,63,645	84,507	1,151	1,282
Jagádhri ...	60,625	80,631	65,376	32,952	2,699	2,669	1,28,700	1,16,252	1,26,168	1,13,932	643	654
Pípli	50,714	35,890	54,371	43,217	1,846	2,344	1,06,931	81,451	1,00,425	75,594	1,764	1,236
Total District ...	4,38,099	3,77,612	2,22,084	1,96,868	9,038	11,858	6,69,221	5,86,338	6,52,311	5,52,427	5,470	20,137

Table No. XXX,—showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE in 1891-92—*concluded.*

Tahsils.	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Area and Jama.								Number of holders.					
	For life or lives.		*At pleasure of Government.*		*For term of Settlement.*		*Pending orders of Government.*		In perpetuity free of conditions.	In perpetuity subject to conditions.	For life or lives.	At pleasure of Government.	For term of Settlement.	Pending orders of Government.
	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.						
Ambála	377	665	...	...	502	672	...	...	1,203	5	88	...	220	...
Kharar	216	395	118	174	261	488	...	...	3,515	315	125	78	70	...
Rúpar	664	1,546	275	532	579	830	...	...	378	120	55	8	105	...
Naráingarh	1,542	1,798	...	...	275	387	...	...	1,215	289	54	...	108	...
Jagádhri	899	977	1	2	989	687	...	...	3,157	292	152	1	158	...
Pípli	815	407	2,730	2,745	1,197	1,469	...	...	2,615	196	133	34	722	...
Total District ...	4,513	5,788	3,124	3,453	3,803	4,533	...	...	12,083	1,217	607	121	1,383	...

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXV of the Revenue Report for 1891-92.

Table No. XXXI,—showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

Year.	Balances of land revenue in rupees.		Reductions of fixed demand on account of bad seasons, deterioration, &c., in rupees.	Takávi advances in rupees.	Remarks.
	Fixed revenue.	Fluctuating and Miscellaneous revenue.			
1882-83	1,683	20	142	750	
1883-84	8,535	...	407	900	
1884-85	34,513	3	165	2,265	
1885-86	4,430	3	66	250	
1886-87	15,356	28	117	...	
1887-88	1,360	1,802	47	...	
1888-89	2,147	224	...	367	
1889-90	29,586	36	...	4,750	
1890-91	3,500	1,691	17	2,400	
1891-92	1,520	2,068	...	13,236	

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XVIIIA, XX, and XXVI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXXII,—showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
		SALES OF LAND.				MORTGAGES OF LAND.				REDEMPTION OF MORTGAGED LAND.			
			Area sold in acres.				Area mortgaged in acres.				Area redeemed in acres.		
PERIOD.	DETAIL.	Number of cases.	Total.	Cultivated.	Purchase money in rupees.	Number of cases.	Total.	Cultivated.	Mortgage money in rupees.	Number of cases.	Total.	Cultivated.	Mortgage money redeemed.
			Acres.	Acres.	Rs.		Acres.	Acres.	Rs.		Acres.	Acres.	Rs.
Outstanding transactions up to 1885-86, except in Tahsíl Pípli, where the figures given are up to 1884-85 only.	Tahsíl Ambála	1,372	8,060	7,578	4,96,863	8,653	28,408	27,559	11,37,889	...	...	...	...
	" Kharar	1,274	6,081	5,469	3,77,019	4,922	13,191	12,663	8,30,216	...	...	...	...
	" Rúpar	881	2,781	2,632	2,28,940	5,043	9,423	9,185	6,57,615	...	...	...	...
	" Naráingarh	1,181	15,259	11,141	3,16,523	3,522	19,509	18,214	5,97,287	...	...	...	...
	" Jagádhri	3,004	32,345	32,345	7,67,453	3,852	28,298	28,298	7,11,575	...	...	...	...
	" Pípli	1,691	30,432	30,432	5,98,647	7,330	29,411	29,411	9,15,526	...	...	...	...
	Whole District Ambála	9,403	94,958	89,597	27,85,445	33,322	1,28,240	1,25,330	48,50,108	...	...	...	...
1886-87	Whole District	1,688	7,630	6,576	4,65,683	6,841	18,234	17,275	9,35,998	3,482	9,112	8,693	3,31,658
1887-88		657	4,009	3,195	1,86,911	1,851	5,629	5,493	2,42,362	996	4,259	3,787	1,02,018
1888-89		2,006	8,837	7,043	5,14,508	6,898	18,222	16,931	9,66,268	5,511	15,543	14,045	5,11,551
1889-90		1,806	10,397	7,817	5,72,344	6,775	29,119	20,567	12,42,425	3,911	18,396	15,621	6,47,588
1890-91		355	7,008	3,691	1,30,064	797	2,285	1,683	81,165	489	1,931	1,633	43,822
1891-92		885	3,514	3,075	2,61,957	3,516	7,575	7,179	4,11,040	2,075	5,562	5,275	1,92,159

NOTE.—The figures in the first part of the table, showing outstanding sales and mortgages up to 1885-86 are taken from Assessment reports, the figures for Tahsíl Pípli covering the tahsíl as at present constituted. These returns are fairly accurate except that the statistics for Tahsíls Jagádhri and Pípli do not distinguish total and cultivated areas. The figures for 1886-87 to 1891-92 are taken from Tables X and XI of the Revenue Report. They represent transactions brought to account in each year, and not the actual occurrences of the year.

Table No. XXXIII,—showing SALE of STAMPS and REGISTRATION of DEEDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	INCOME FROM SALE OF STAMPS.				OPERATIONS OF THE REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.							
	Receipts in rupees.		*Net income in rupees.*		*Number of deeds registered.*				*Value of property affected in rupees.*			
YEARS.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Touching immovable property.	Touching movable property.	Money obligations.	Total of all kinds.	Immovable property.	Movable property.	Money obligations.	Total value of all kinds.
1882-83	1,03,510	42,802	93,499	40,683	3,055	81	402	3,538	10,60,283	21,529	1,28,621	12,10,433
1883-84	1,09,195	48,184	97,950	46,017	3,724	94	434	4,252	12,48,429	26,138	1,67,830	14,42,397
1884-85	1,00,875	44,163	91,530	42,129	3,120	85	308	3,513	10,34,709	22,851	1,12,581	11,70,141
1885-86	1,04,960	45,933	95,316	43,623	3,149	68	201	3,418	11,27,069	19,208	81,970	12,28,247
1886-87	1,17,560	51,212	1,07,511	48,250	3,140	72	183	3,395	13,47,715	24,964	86,127	14,58,806
1887-88	1,14,363	54,972	1,04,301	52,274	3,934	66	185	4,185	15,55,149	19,842	93,374	16,68,365
1888-89	1,29,644	59,662	1,26,349	56,509	4,279	55	182	4,516	17,34,393	30,446	80,175	18,45,014
1889-90	1,18,470	62,306	1,16,068	58,088	4,023	46	174	4,243	18,19,340	9,894	77,094	19,06,328
1890-91	1,03,807	56,622	1,01,669	53,460	3,572	63	127	3,762	18,76,469	27,985	50,210	12,54,664
1891-92	1,17,066	44,317	1,14,652	41,481	2,449	43	104	2,591	10,20,127	20,044	37,853	10,78,024

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Appendix A of the Stamp Report and Tables Nos. II and III of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIII A,—showing REGISTRATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Number of deeds registered.					
	1890-91.			1891-92.		
	Compulsory.	Optional.	Total.	Compulsory.	Optional.	Total.
Registrar Ambála	20	2	22	5	...	5
Sub-Registrar Do.	737	321	1,058	357	270	627
" " Tahsíl	...	...	...	56	35	91
" " Cantonments	154	125	279	192	132	324
" Rúpar	338	89	427	40	6	46
" "	201	68	269	321	106	427
" Jagádhri	313	145	458	170	104	274
" "	...	...	...	79	57	136
" Kharar	497	187	684	13	4	17
" "	80	49	129	320	195	515
" Naráingarh	273	90	363	114	55	169
" Rámgarh	...	...	...	9	4	13
" Pípli	222	28	250	16	2	18
" Tháuesar	140	50	190	191	61	252
" Sohána	45	52	97	87	54	141
" Búria	19	8	27	...	...	...
Total of District ...	3,039	1,214	4,253	1,970	1,085	3,055

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. I of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIV,—showing INCOME TAX Collections.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Part I.		Part II.		Part III.		Part IV.		Total.	
Years.	No. of Assessees.	Amount of Tax.	No. of Assessees.	Amount of Tax.	No. of Assessees.	Amount of Tax.	No. of Assessees.	Amount. of Tax.	No. of Assessees.	Amount of Tax.
1886-87	66	519	...	...	...	...	2,665	52,949	2,731	53,468
1887-88	39	737	...	...	...	...	2,608	65,135	2,647	65,872
1888-89	50	1,089	...	...	...	...	2,720	67,447	2,770	68,536
1889-90	203	5,164	...	...	...	...	2,500	61,506	2,703	66,670
1890-91	263	5,869	...	...	...	...	2,474	67,651	2,737	73,520
1891-92	107	3,534	...	...	...	...	2,444	69,570	2,551	73,104

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. IV of the Income Tax Report.

Table No. XXXV,—showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Fermented liquors.					Intoxicating drugs.						Excise revenue from		
		Number of retail shops.		*Consumption in gallons.*		*Number of retail licenses.*		*Consumption in maunds.*						
Years.	Number of central distilleries.	Country spirits.	European liquors.	Rum.	Country spirits.	Opium.	Other drugs.	Opium.	Charas.	Bhang.	Other drugs.	Fermented liquors.	Drugs.	Total.
												Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1887-88	4	37	16	1,439	9,371	81	81	60	60½	77¾	1½	65,259	39,605	1,04,864
1888-89	4	39	22	1,512	10,881	81	81	79½	61	148¼	1	74,716	40,761	1,15,477
1889-90	3	40	19	2,443	11,451	73	73	87¾	67¾	114½	1	94,854	40,269	1,35,123
1890-91	3	46	11	1,373	11,838	70	70	94½	69	91¼	1	84,327	39,207	1,23,534
1891-92	1	50	11	2,673	10,381	72	72	126	91	113½	1	87,410	41,106	1,28,516
Average of five years, 1887-88 to 1891-92 ...	3	42	16	1,888	10,784	75	75	89	70	109	1	81,313	40,180	1,21,503

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, IV, VII, VIII and Statements A., B. and C. of the Excise Report.

Table No. XXXVI,—showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	ANNUAL INCOME IN RUPEES.			ANNUAL EXPENDITURE IN RUPEES.							
YEAR.	Provincial rates.	Miscellaneous.	Total Income.	Establishment.	District post and Arboriculture, &c.	Education.	Medical.	Miscellaneous.	Public Works.	Total Expenditure.	REMARKS.
1883-84	1,04,909	4,269	1,09,178	2,575	757	23,115	10,002	2,038	29,718	68,205	
1884-85	1,04,558	4,315	1,08,873	3,148	1,435	23,701	10,385	1,557	57,276	97,502	
1885-86	1,04,655	10,728	1,15,383	5,010	1,242	24,768	13,848	810	61,299	1,06,977	
1886-87	1,00,776	22,413	1,23,189	5,612	1,417	25,375	14,411	9,262	41,125	97,202	
1887-88	96,113	17,472	1,13,585	6,689	1,412	22,519	16,947	13,821	41,696	1,03,084	
1888-89	1,10,007	18,025	1,28,032	8,554	1,476	26,448	14,782	11,385	61,393	1,24,038	
1889-90	1,14,225	15,084	1,29,309	8,170	1,651	26,169	15,210	23,286	42,861	1,17,347	
1890-91	1,12,313	31,131	1,43,444	7,386	3,947	23,876	15,060	26,047	91,999	1,68,315	
1891-92	1,18,783	13,050	1,31,833	7,026	3,807	24,024	13,247	32,305	91,169	1,71,578	

These figures are taken from the Abstract of Receipts and Expenditure in District Fund Report.

Table No. XXXVII,—showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	HIGH SCHOOLS.						MIDDLE SCHOOLS.						PRIMARY SCHOOLS.							
	ENGLISH.				VERNACULAR.		ENGLISH.				VERNACULAR.		ENGLISH.				VERNACULAR.			
YEARS.	*Government.*		*Aided.*		*Government.*		*Government.*		*Aided.*		*Government.*		*Government.*		*Aided.*		*Government.*		*Aided.*	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
	FIGURES FOR BOYS.																			
1887-88	...	...	1	397	...	...	3	558	1	428	11	1,445	...	...	...	...	81	3,424	24	251
1888-89	...	...	1	339	...	...	3	556	1	414	11	1,366	...	...	...	...	76	3,152	29	347
1889-90	...	...	1	376	...	...	3	538	1	426	11	1,362	...	...	...	...	79	3,084	20	145
1890-91	1	172	1	383	...	...	2	382	1	434	11	1,879	...	...	...	...	84	6,507	15	367
1891-92	1	182	1	413	...	...	2	354	1	459	11	1,550	...	...	...	...	89	4,243	23	893
	FIGURES FOR GIRLS.																			
1887-88	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	66	...	...
1888-89	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	63	...	...
1889-90	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	58	...	...
1890-91	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	153	...	...
1891-92	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8	244	...	...

N.B.—(1) In the case of both the Government and Aided Institutions, a High School includes the Middle and Primary Departments attached to it; and a Middle School, the Primary Department. In the case of a High School the numbers attending the Middle and the Upper and Lower Primary Departments are included in the numbers for the High School, and in the case of a Middle School the numbers attending the Upper and Lower Primary Departments are included in the numbers for the Middle School.

(2) The figures in columns 20 and 21 represent indigenous schools.

(3) Government Schools in which English is taught are now classed as Municipal Board Schools.

Table No. XXXVIII,—showing the WORKING of DISPENSARIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	Number of patients treated.														
		Men.					Women.					Children.				
		1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
Ambála	C. H.	18,033	20,741	19,082	19,956	14,061	4,361	2,686	2,289	3,661	8,154	3,330	1,901	1,940	2,415	3,146
Rúpar	2nd Class	11,237	9,756	8,490	9,116	9,785	3,157	3,055	2,747	2,934	2,935	2,966	2,783	2,672	2,804	2,340
Jagádhri	Do.	12,026	11,685	11,434	11,674	10,708	2,787	2,768	2,754	3,175	3,139	2,264	2,364	2,715	2,919	2,806
Thánesar	Do.	4,987	5,617	4,841	6,328	6,571	1,362	1,279	1,240	1,679	1,495	851	1,200	1,047	1,321	1,175
Sadhaura	Do.	7,665	7,343	6,934	6,764	6,584	2,662	2,259	2,301	2,733	2,670	2,327	2,002	2,024	2,226	2,334
Kharar	Do.	4,846	8,310	6,662	7,387	8,220	1,142	1,519	1,552	1,463	1,171	949	1,212	1,129	1,374	738
Total ...		58,784	63,452	57,443	61,225	55,929	15,471	13,566	12,883	15,645	19,564	12,687	11,462	11,527	13,059	12,539

		18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	Number of Patients treated.														
		Total patients.					In-door patients.					Expenditure in rupees.				
		1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
Ambála	C. H.	25,724	25,328	23,311	26,032	25,361	877	837	886	946	683	5,856	5,349	7,545	4,997	7,221
Rúpar	2nd Class	17,360	15,594	13,909	14,854	15,060	192	174	168	149	127	3,335	2,691	3,213	2,970	2,796
Jagádhri	Do.	17,077	16,817	16,903	17,768	16,653	365	303	275	340	290	3,108	2,965	5,500	2,303	3,896
Thánesar	Do.	7,200	8,096	7,128	9,328	9,241	95	110	107	165	134	1,803	1,233	1,688	1,330	1,398
Sadhaura	Do.	12,644	11,604	11,259	11,723	11,588	170	197	208	178	193	2,111	1,406	2,027	1,587	1,765
Kharar	Do.	6,937	11,041	9,343	10,224	10,129	...	...	124	197	203	1,055	1,299	2,242	1,769	1,708
Total		86,942	88,480	81,853	89,929	88,032	1,799	1,621	1,768	1,975	1,630	17,268	14,943	22,215	15,956	18,784

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables No. 2, 4 & 5 of the Dispensary Report.

Table No. XXXIX,—showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Number of Civil suits for				Value in Rupees of Civil suits.				Number of Revenue Cases.		
Year.	Money or movable property.	Land or rights in land.	Other matters.	Total Civil suits.	Money or movable property.	Land or rights in land.	Other matters.	Total Civil suits.	Revenue Court cases.	Revenue Officers cases.	Total Revenue cases.
1887-88	8,854	724	415	9,993	7,58,800	2,25,841	90,044	10,74,685	1,254	4,022	5,276
1888-89	8,399	885	438	9,722	7,66,128	2,16,208	93,008	10,75,344	2,690	7,372	10,062
1889-90	7,917	770	508	9,195	6,59,127	2,83,465	75,073	10,17,665	1,655	5,170	6,825
1890-91	9,419	686	319	10,424	4,84,256	2,04,123	55,484	8,43,863	1,047	5,869	6,916
1891-92	10,092	864	332	11,288	7,21,009	2,62,256	45,454	10,28,719	1,156	6,451	7,607

Note.—These figures are taken from Statement No. III of the Civil Report, and Table No. XXVIII B of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XL,—showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Details.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Persons tried.	Brought to trial	7,047	7,152	5,917	6,180	6,667
	Discharged	2,965	3,023	2,716	2,675	3,030
	Acquitted...	1,373	1,241	1,007	555	974
	Convicted...	2,786	2,810	2,081	2,883	2,629
	Committed or referred	25	33	44	62	45
Cases disposed of.	Summons cases (Regular)	1,658	1,843	1,251	1,038	1,154
	Ditto (Summary)	501	248	302	466	487
	Warrant cases (Regular)	1,068	1,219	1,401	1,504	1,682
	Ditto (Summary)	50	37	47	56	63
	Total cases disposed of	2,377	3,347	3,001	3,064	3,386
Number of persons sentenced to	Death	3	1	6	9	5
	Transportation for life	2	6	6	5	8
	Ditto for a term	...	...	...	...	...
	Penal servitude...	...	...	...	...	...
	Fine under 10 rupees	2,165	2,169	1,221	1,818	1,500
	Ditto 10 to 50 rupees	311	332	377	351	292
	Ditto 50 to 100 „	56	15	41	37	39
	Ditto 100 to 500 „	7	5	8	12	8
	Ditto 500 to 1,000 „	...	1	1	2	...
	Over 1,000 rupees	1	...	...	...	...
	Imprisonment under 6 months	430	377	423	500	429
	Ditto 6 months to 2 years, ...	154	146	173	212	354
	Ditto over 2 years	6	6	19	19	22
	Whipping	99	86	109	91	75
	Find sureties of the peace	4	2	6	1	6
	Recognisance to keep the peace	7	...	10	36	6
	Give sureties for good behaviour	20	62	113	82	461

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos, IV. and V of the Criminal Report.

Table No. XLI,—showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	NUMBER OF CASES INQUIRED INTO					NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED OR SUMMONED.					NUMBER OF PERSONS CONVICTED.				
NATURE OF OFFENCE.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Rioting or unlawful assembly	12	13	13	15	1	83	40	79	101	10	55	30	41	96	...
Murder and attempts to murder	16	18	17	23	10	24	27	21	27	22	5	8	12	7	12
Total serious offences against the person	167	192	237	143	127	202	183	209	177	176	98	93	110	106	82
Abduction of married women	17	29	26	12	10	11	10	17	19	26	4	1	6	9	10
Total serious offences against property	606	801	916	797	525	215	249	226	251	216	120	130	140	149	108
Total minor offences against the person	27	51	47	7	19	8	40	29	14	50	7	2	10	3	9
Cattle theft	87	91	111	72	61	60	64	66	81	50	26	35	27	40	40
Total minor offences against property	998	934	1,078	820	655	709	774	831	1,062	886	444	375	373	533	391
Total cognizable offences	2,551	3,714	3,141	2,831	2,507	2,007	3,084	2,496	3,319	3,053	1,380	2,051	1,443	2,342	1,980
Rioting, unlawful assembly, affray	2	1	...	8	2	5	2	...	37	15	...	2	...	35	12
Offences relating to marriage	33	337	248	266	272	...	131	200	199	274	...	9	16	26	36
Total non-cognizable offences	239	3,554	3,055	2,981	3,130	204	2,481	3,401	2,989	3,822	142	587	599	616	673
Grand Total of offences	2,790	7,268	6,196	5,812	5,637	2,211	5,565	5,897	6,308	6,875	1,522	2,638	2,042	2,958	2,653

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Statement A of the Police Report.

Table No. XLII,—showing CONVICTS in AMBALA GAOL.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
	Number in gaol at beginning of year.		Number imprisoned during the year.		Religion of convicts.			Previous occupation of male convicts.						Length of sentence of convicts.							Previously convicted.			Pecuniary results.	
Year.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Mussalmán.	Hindu.	Buddhists and Jains.	Official.	Professional.	Service.	Agricultural.	Commercial.	Industrial.	Under 6 months.	6 months to 1 year.	1 year to 2 years.	2 years to 5 years.	5 years to 10 years.	Over 10 years and transportation.	Death.	Once.	Twice.	More than twice.	Cost of maintenance.	Profits of convict labour.
																								Rs.	Rs.
1886-87	359	8	961	25	305	481	...	28	2	79	394	13	22	611	99	39	26	10	1	2	71	22	8	21,606	2,733
1887-88	472	12	1,050	21	252	405	...	23	7	52	298	47	49	508	78	52	16	...	2	3	41	12	15	28,883	2,720
1888-89	638	7	661	21	209	398	...	23	3	47	303	35	49	445	90	37	19	7	9	1	40	7	10	33,490	6,280
1889-90	479	6	1,072	22	283	518	...	27	9	50	397	58	57	553	121	77	31	6	8	6	38	14	18	29,354	3,961
1890-91	574	7	1,339	25	372	421	...	8	8	19	321	58	4	578	177	105	45	12	5	9	29	23	12	43,112	8,571

NOTE.—These figures are taken from the Tables of the Jail Report.

Table No. XLIII,—showing the POPULATION of TOWNS.

1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Tahsíl.	Towns.		Total population.	Hindús.	Sikhs.	Jains.	Mussalmáns.	Other religions.	Number of occupied houses.	Persons per 100 occupied houses.
Ambála	Ambála ...	City	28,278	40,339	2,407	1,119	30,523	4,906	13,291	597
		Cantonment	51,016							
Jagádhri	Jagádhri		13,029	9,610	160	187	3,067	5	3,253	610
Ditto	Buria		6,809	3,026	155	177	3,451	...		
Naráingarh ...	Sadhaura		10,445	3,897	331	414	5,802	1	1,451	720
Rúpar	Rúpar		8,693	3,836	328	202	4,319	8	1,312	663
Pípli	Thánesar		6,111	3,989	308	30	1,769	15	3,202	674
Do.	Ládwa		4,011	2,897	158	...	956	...		
Do.	Shahábád		11,473	3,751	747	6	6,952	17		

These figures are taken from Table No. 1 of the Census Report for 1891

Table No. XLIV,—showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
		Total population by the Census of	*Total births registered during the year*					*Total deaths registered during the year.*				
Towns.	Sex.	1881.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.
Ambála City	Male	14,446	629	559	579	565	523	340	755	494	438	943
	Female	12,331	537	518	496	515	452	322	706	454	435	983
Jagádhri	Male	6,511	165	249	229	198	205	135	291	190	207	247
	Female	5,789	154	210	187	197	186	149	276	179	189	239
Shahábád	Male	5,091	159	154	134	143	115	103	246	120	102	303
	Female	5,127	123	131	110	131	106	98	255	78	80	266
Sadhaura	Male	5,532	209	203	152	217	169	160	218	162	155	286
	Female	5,262	162	166	141	144	161	167	179	110	138	295
Rúpar	Male	6,171	219	164	184	183	199	153	143	132	140	188
	Female	4,155	186	194	166	190	169	116	132	129	128	163

Note.—These figures are taken from Statement No. LIII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLV,—showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Name of Municipality.	Ambála City.	Jagádhri.	Sadhaura.	Rúpar.	Buria.	Thánesar.	Shahábád.	Ládwa.
Class of Municipality	II	III	III	III	III	III	III	III
1883-84	27,265	16,344	5,605	6,656	4,096	4,406	5,877	4,200
1884-85	24,597	14,254	4,696	5,284	3,642	3,724	5,089	3,763
1885-86	39,940	19,767	5,557	5,662	4,072	4,145	6,076	5,608
1886-87	36,712	22,658	6,016	6,423	4,018	4,558	6,006	4,418
1887-88	36,914	22,218	6,531	9,930	3,747	5,434	6,122	4,671
1888-89	40,468	23,695	7,085	9,337	3,804	5,267	6,949	5,098
1889-90	42,548	25,950	7,806	10,712	4,581	5,512	8,502	5,532
1890-91	36,314	22,718	5,795	10,490	4,285	5,952	8,169	4,563
1891-92	44,323	22,960	7,023	10,925	3,571	5,591	9,550	8,947

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI., of the Administ[illegible]tion Report.

POLYMETRICAL Table No. XLVI,—showing DISTANCES.

AMBALA CITY, a. b.	Ambála City, a. b.	Nagal	Ambála Cantonment, b.	Barrára	Mulana, b.	Pípli, a. b. c.	Thánesar, a. c.	Shahábád, b. c.	Ládwa, b.	Radaur, b.	Sanghaur, b.	Jagádhri, a. b.	Buria	Kalesar	Dádupur	Naráingarh, a. b.	Shahzádpur	Sadhaura, b.	Raipur	Chandigarh, b.	Manimájra, c.	Manauli	Kharar, a. b.	Kuráli	Morinda, b.	Sirhind	Chamkor	Rúpar, a. b.
Nagal	10																											
Ambála Cantonment	5	11																										
Barrára	24	16	19																									
Mulana, b.	19	21	14	4																								
Pípli, a. b. c.	30	24	25	24	25																							
Thánesar, a. c.	34	20	29	27	26	3																						
Shahábád, b. c.	17	11	13	11	13	12	15																					
Ládwa, b.	34	27	29	17	21	9	12	17																				
Radaur, b.	41	34	36	24	28	16	19	24	7																			
Sanghaur, b.	28	21	23	8	11	12	15	11	8	15																		
Jagádhri, a. b.	37	39	32	20	17	29	32	27	20	13	29																	
Buria	40	42	35	23	20	32	35	30	23	16	32	3																
Kalesar	55	58	50	40	35	51	54	40	42	35	41	22	21															
Dádupur	42	44	37	30	22	34	37	32	25	18	34	5	4	17														
Naráingarh, a. b.	24	34	19	27	22	51	54	32	47	40	33	27	30	37	26													
Shahzádpur	17	27	13	19	11	51	54	26	42	43	23	30	33	40	29	7												
Sadhaura, b.	28	38	24	18	13	54	57	30	36	21	24	18	21	28	17	9	12											
Raipur	27	37	23	29	21	62	65	36	58	51	44	37	40	47	36	10	10	19										
Chandigarh, b.	28	38	30	40	44	55	58	43	59	66	53	62	65	80	67	29	26	35	18									
Manimájra, c.	24	34	27	46	42	53	56	40	57	64	51	59	62	77	64	29	22	35	18	5								
Manauli	20	30	25	44	39	50	53	38	54	61	48	57	60	75	62	32	26	38	22	15	10							
Kharar, a. b.	27	37	32	51	46	57	60	45	61	68	55	64	67	82	69	38	32	44	28	18	13	7						
Kuráli	35	45	40	59	54	65	68	53	69	76	63	72	75	90	77	46	40	52	36	26	21	15	8					
Morinda, b.	37	47	42	61	56	67	70	55	72	79	66	74	77	93	80	49	44	56	38	29	24	18	11	6				
Sirhind	30	40	35	54	49	60	63	48	64	71	58	67	70	75	62	53	47	58	57	35	30	18	17	18	12			
Chamkor	47	57	52	71	66	77	80	65	82	89	76	84	87	103	90	59	54	66	48	39	34	28	21	16	10	22		
Rúpar, a. b. c.	45	55	50	69	64	75	78	63	79	86	73	82	85	100	87	53	49	61	43	32	27	25	18	10	13	25	8	
Purkháli	44	54	49	68	63	74	77	62	78	85	72	81	84	99	86	47	43	55	37	26	21	25	16	8	14	26	13	7

REFERENCES.

a. Tahsíl.

b. Thana.

c. Chauki.

NOTE.—All distances from Ambála City are measured from the District Court House, and from Ambála Cantonment, from the Cantonment Church of England.

GAZETTEER

OF THE

AMBALA DISTRICT,

1892-93.

Price, Rs. 2-8-0.

Compiled and Published under the authority of the

PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.